

SPONSORSHIP AND THE INTERNAL AUDIENCE:  
EXAMINING HOW CORPORATE SPONSORSHIP IS RELATED TO  
ORGANIZATION IDENTIFICATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

A Dissertation

by

TODD K. HALL

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of  
Texas A&M University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2008

Major Subject: Kinesiology

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## ABSTRACT

Sponsorship and the Internal Audience: Examining How Corporate Sponsorship Is  
Related to Organization Identification and Job Satisfaction. (August 2008)

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An investigation of the relationship between corporate sponsorship activities and human resource constructs was conducted through an online questionnaire with employees of a southern U.S. energy provider. Specifically, three sponsorship-related constructs, fan identification with a sponsored sport property, employee involvement with the sponsorship, and employee attitude toward the sponsorship were hypothesized to be positively related to employee organization identification and job satisfaction.

Social identification theory (SIT) provided the theoretical foundation of this study. Through a series of hypotheses, the three sponsorship-related constructs were hypothesized to exert both direct and indirect effects on employee organizational identification and job satisfaction. Testing the process of missing data for approximately 80 of the total 427 respondents showed that data was missing at random (MAR). Thus, missing data values were imputed using regression techniques available in AMOS 16.0 software. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to evaluate the path of

predicted relationships. Assessment of the measurement model fit for the entire model showed that all but one indicator, for involvement with the sponsorship, loaded on latent variables as expected. In addition to comparing the results of the SEM analysis of the imputed data set ( $n = 427$ ) to the data set with only complete responses ( $n = 308$ ), a random sample ( $n = 200$ ) was also analyzed, in order to assess the impact of sample size on fitting the data to the models.

A competing models approach to SEM analysis showed that four nested models differed only marginally on a couple goodness-of-fit indices. The principle of parsimony was thus utilized to select and evaluate the fit of the appropriate model. Evaluation of the hypotheses showed that fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship did not exert direct effects on employee organization identification and job satisfaction, but did influence these human resource constructs in an indirect manner. Additionally, an unpredicted, indirect relationship between organization prestige and job satisfaction was also established. Lastly, theoretical and managerial implications are discussed, along with the identification of several recommendations to guide future research relating corporate sponsorship with the internal audience.

## DEDICATION

To my home team: my wife Dustalyn, our head coach, who keeps us all together moving in the right direction, and to our starting five – Ashton, Ellie, Bergan, Cooper, and Ainsley.

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Whether they have known it or not, many individuals have led the way and/or have been influential throughout the process of completing this dissertation and degree. First and foremost, I would like to thank Dr. Mauricio Ferreira for giving me the opportunity to study with him at Texas A&M University. Although I may have proved to be a difficult first Ph.D. student, under his guidance and tutelage, I have learned much about being successful in our field. I hope to take his commitment to excellence with me. I am also indebted to Dr. Michael Sagas for entrusting me with the opportunity and responsibility to teach this past year. His dedication to providing quality leadership has not gone unnoticed.

I would also like to thank Dr. Gregg Bennett and Dr. Larry Gresham for taking the time to serve on my committee. I have appreciated their guidance, suggestions, and support.

To the many colleagues and friends I have gained over the past few years, I am very grateful. I will take with me many fond memories of Graceland, the trophy case, Mi Cocina, Double Dave's, and of course Friday afternoon basketball! I want to also thank Rocky Harris for collaborating with me on this project and helping gain access to the employee population.

Lastly, I would like to thank my parents for their support, which was felt even from the distance. And once again, thank you to my wife and kids, whose patience and support strengthened me throughout this process. I love you.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION: CORPORATE SPONSORSHIP AND THE INTERNAL AUDIENCE

In an early investigation of sponsorship perspectives conducted by Gardner and Shuman (1987), the authors suggested that sponsorship activities would continue to grow in the foreseeable future for the following three reasons: a) sponsorship cuts through the clutter of traditional advertising channels, b) sponsorship assists organizations in dealing with consumers' changing media viewing habits, and c) sponsorships can aid corporations relate to and reach consumer and non-consumer audiences. In the 20 years since this article was published, both industry expenditures as well as academic interest in sponsorship as a marketing tool have increased exponentially.

Commonly defined as “a cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that property” (Ukman, 1996). Gardner and Shuman (1987) reported that corporate sponsorship expenditures exceeded \$1 billion in 1985. Recently International Event Group (IEG), the preeminent sponsorship industry research and consulting organization, released information of the 2007 global sponsorship environment. This report included details of expenditures reaching \$37.7 billion, and projections that corporate sponsorship spending will escalate

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This dissertation follows the style of the *Journal of Sport Management*.

to approximately \$43.5 billion in 2008 (IEG, 2008a). Similarly, three thorough reviews of sponsorship-related academic literature (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Hall, 2007; Walliser, 2003) have shown increased interest, involvement, and investigation by academicians. In fact, in the recent five-year period from 2002 through 2007, more than 100 sponsorship related research articles have been published in marketing, advertising, leisure, and sport management fields (Hall, 2007).

In large part, because sponsorship is a flexible marketing communications tool with the ability to accomplish the three aforementioned results described by Gardner and Shuman (1987), research has shown and suggested that corporations aspire to achieve a plethora of business objectives by employing this rapidly growing marketing medium. Some of those objectives include creating brand awareness and recognition (Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire, Weeks, & Tellegen, 2006; Johar, Pham, & Wakefield, 2006), accessing specific target markets (Doherty & Murray, 2007; Darnell & Sparks, 2007; Close, Finney, Lacey, & Sneath, 2006), developing goodwill (Meenaghan, 2001a, 2001b, 1991; Shaw & McDonald, 2006; Ruth & Simonin, 2006) with a variety of audiences, increasing sales (Choi, Stotlar, & Park, 2006; Sneath, Finney, & Close, 2005; Tomasini, Frye, & Stotlar, 2004), improving employee relations and motivation (Daellenbach, Davies, & Ashill, 2006; Cousens, Babiak, & Bradish, 2006; Hickman, Lawrence, & Ward, 2005; Cornwell, Pruitt, & Clark, 2005), enhancing brand image (Smolianov & Shilbury, 2005; Sneath, Finney, & Close, 2005; Doherty & Murray, 2007), and positioning the brand (Farrelly, Quester, & Burton, 2006; Ferreira, Hall, & Bennett, in press; Hartland, Skinner, & Griffiths, 2005). In addition to these objectives

found in academic research, IEG (2008b) lists several other business objectives including driving retail traffic, showcasing community responsibility, entertaining clients, recruiting employees, and increasing brand loyalty. From these two lists of objectives, it is clear that the versatility afforded corporations through sponsorship activities make it an attractive marketing implement.

### *Statement of the Problem*

Examining the recent history of sponsorship related literature shows that some of these objectives have received more interest and investigation than others. For example, in the most recent five years, awareness and recognition has been the primary theme of at least eight studies; enhancing brand image has been the focus of seven studies; and return on investment (ROI) and shareholder wealth has been assessed in five different sport sponsorship contexts. Meanwhile, despite the fact that Grimes and Meenaghan (1998) stated that “corporate decision-makers are increasingly recognizing the benefits of simultaneously directing the focus of their sponsorship activity inwards at their corporate staff,” (p. 51), the impact of sponsorship on this particular audience continues to be overlooked. This oft-cited objective of sponsorship activity has been the focal point of only two published studies during the past decade. Thus, one of the goals of this study is to expand sponsorship related literature with regard to the internal or corporate employee audience.

Several international, national, and even regional corporations claim to engage in sponsorship activities in part to increase employee morale, pride, and productivity. The United States Postal Service (USPS) has defended two of its sponsorship partnerships in

recent years, citing that the “added benefit of increased employee morale from the sponsorship of Lance Armstrong and his Postal Service team justifies this business expense” (Jaffer, 2003) and “by building employee morale through programs that capitalize on the spirit of the Olympics, we are inspiring employee performance, which... is good for our athletes, our employees and the customers we serve” (Bowker, 1991). The Standard Life Group, a life assurance and pensions, investment management, and banking products company utilizes its sponsorship of the Edinburgh International Festival to build relationships with its clients and its employees. Managers in this corporation create internal excitement by holding competitions amongst employees to win tickets for various performances (Hils-Cosgrove, 2001). A different insurance and fund management organization based in Australia, AMP sponsored the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney with the objective to “improve employee morale and productivity” (Calder, 2000). Lastly, on Visa’s corporate website, it is stated that “above all, the Olympic Games remain a tremendous source of pride for our employees who are committed to the Spirit of the Olympic Games” (Visa, 2008).

#### *Purpose of the Study*

Clearly these and other corporations are spending billions of dollars each year with expectations of positively influencing employees. In the most poignant of cases, as was highlighted above by representatives of the USPS and AMP, organizations are expecting that such activities and associations with sporting and cultural events will result in enhanced employee performance and productivity. As noted above, little research has been conducted to support such notions of increased performance. Grimes

and Meenaghan (1998) reported that employees of a national bank in Ireland construed that sponsoring two national events influenced perceptions of firm size and engendered a national or Irish appeal. Interestingly however, while the employees responded as having increased pride in the bank as an organization because of the sponsorship activities, they did not report that these activities made the bank a more desirable place to work. More recently, Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005) examined two distinct relationships with regards to sponsorship serving as an internal marketing tool. For the employee audience, they found among other results that identification with a sponsored sport team was positively correlated to organizational identification, organizational commitment, and ultimately employee willingness to satisfy customers. As such, this study lays the groundwork of investigation as to how corporate sponsorship activities can potentially influence the internal audience, but fails to explore additional desirable employee outcomes. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to examine the relationships between a) employee identification with a sponsored sport property, and b) their attitude toward the sponsorship, along with the resulting influence that these attitudes may have on c) employee identification with the organization for which they work, and ultimately on d) the level of experienced job satisfaction. More specifically, the following research question guided this study.

What relationships exist between the employees' identification with a sponsored sport property and attitude toward the sponsorship with their organizational identification and job satisfaction?

### *Significance of the Study*

Admittedly, most efforts to effectively and efficiently leverage corporate sponsorship activities are targeted toward consumer audiences, as opposed to the internal or employee audience. However, the significance of this study largely lies within the realm of the concept of internal marketing. A recent definition of internal marketing states that it consists of “managerial actions that help all members of the organization understand and accept their respective roles in implementing a marketing strategy” (Boone & Kurtz, 2006, p. 320). From this perspective, managers may seek to more fully profit from the “benefits of simultaneously directing the focus of their sponsorship activity inwards at their corporate staff” (Grimes & Meenaghan, 1998, p. 51). If the hypothesized relationships between employee attitudes toward the sport property and the sponsorship with organization identification and job satisfaction hold, then the findings may aid in legitimizing the claims that sponsorship activities can enhance employee outcomes of improved morale, job performance, commitment, and organization citizenship behavior. If these relationships hold true, in addition to activating sponsor relationships directed at external consumers, sponsorship managers may want to spend more time developing leveraging activities for the internal audience.

Additionally, this study serves as one response to several calls to action that have previously been made for those researching sponsorship to expand the current base of knowledge and literature with regard to the corporate workforce as an audience of sponsorship activities. In originally identifying employees as a potential audience of sponsorship activities, Gardner and Shuman (1987) were basically inviting others to an



open stream of research activity. Cornwell and Maignan (1998) went a step further in saying that “researchers could establish whether sponsorships help increase employee involvement and participation” (p. 18). Walliser (2003) also noted that the impact of sponsorship on the internal corporate audience had only generated one study. It is somewhat surprising then that in examining the current idea space of sponsorship literature, that Hall (2007) identified a single additional study exploring the impact of sponsorship on this important secondary audience of sponsorship activities. This study will indeed expand on the current literature regarding sponsorship impact on the internal audience.

### *Summary*

In review, as corporate sponsorship of cultural, entertainment, and sporting events has proliferated over the past two decades, organizations have repeatedly cited improving employee morale, performance, and productivity as an objective of engaging in sponsorship activities. Despite this frequently cited objective, very little research has been conducted to investigate its merit. Two specific identities falling under the social identity theory, organization and fan identity were investigated in this research endeavor. While fan identity has been shown to correlate with organization identity (Hickman, Lawrence, & Ward, 2005), it has yet to be investigated with regard to job satisfaction – a central tenant amongst many human resource outcomes. The overarching goal of this research endeavor remains to gain a better understanding of sponsorship impact on the employee audience.

To accomplish this research agenda, this dissertation project has been organized into five chapters. Chapter II provides a thorough discussion of social identity theory, the theoretical framework providing the foundation for this study, including the two identities pertinent to this study – fan and organization identification. Next, a review of corporate sponsorship literature is provided, comprised of explanations of goodwill, employee involvement with sponsorship activities, and employee attitudes toward the sponsorship. Subsequently, a brief history of theoretical foundations of job satisfaction along with a description of both overall and facet perspectives are included. Lastly, the relationships of interest are summarized, including a visual depiction of these relationships with two exploratory elements being added. Chapter III details the methodology and techniques that were employed, including the research design, sample selection, instrumentation, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter IV contains the results of the analyses along with a discussion of their interpretation. Lastly, Chapter V revisits the research question driving this study and discusses the limitations related to the study, as well as identifies future areas of research that come to light as a result of the findings herein.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the literature and theories involving the constructs in this study. The first section reviews social identification theory, detailing the two specific identities pertinent to this study. The second section defines and discusses key concepts of corporate sponsorship related to the internal/corporate audience. The third section examines the construct of job satisfaction, briefly reviewing its research history and theories, followed by a discussion of both facet and global levels of measurement. Lastly, a visual depiction of the proposed relationships is provided including an explanation of two exploratory relationships of interest.

#### *Social Identity Theory*

Social identity theory (SIT) proposes that people classify themselves and others into social groups based on categories such as organizational memberships, religious affiliations, and gender and age (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). According to Turner (1985) the categories themselves are defined by the typical characteristics ascribed by members of the group. Such social classifications serve two general purposes (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). First, segmenting individuals in a social environment, even though assigning stereotypes are not necessarily reliable (Hamilton, 1981), provides a methodical process of defining others. Second, social categorizations allow a person to define him/herself, providing a sense of belonging to a larger human aggregate (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

A primary benefit of self-identifying with a larger group is that an individual may perceive group success (and failures) as a personal experience (Foote, 1951; Tolman, 1943). Tajfel and Turner (1979) specifically stated that intergroup behavior is motivated by the need for self-esteem. In other words, people seek association with successful others for the purpose of enhancing their own self-esteem (Madrigal, 2004). This process of projecting others' successes onto oneself has been labeled as basking in the reflected glory (BIRGing) in psychology literature (Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976). As a corollary to this notion of enjoying others' success, research has also shown that in order to avoid negative evaluations by others and self, individuals tend to disassociate themselves with those who have failed (Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986; Richardson & Cialdini, 1981). This distancing behavior has been termed cutting off reflected failure (CORFing) (Snyder, Higgins, & Stucky, 1983). As evidenced in the following discussion, identifying with certain groups and/or organizations can have varying impacts on an individual's behavior.

#### *Fan Identification*

As individuals can and often do belong to several different types of organizations at any given time, research has shown that an individual's self-identity can be created by a variety of group memberships, each contributing to a different degree (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Breakwell, 1986; Kramer, 1991). Madrigal (2004) stated that "team identification is just one type of self-identity" (p. 243). This concept of fan identity has received a great deal of attention in sport management literature (Wann & Branscombe, 1993, 1990; Madrigal, 2004, 2001; Wann & Schraeder, 1997; Wann, Gaye, McLean, &

Pullen, 2003). Sutton, McDonald, Milne, and Cimperman (1997) suggested that while objects of attachment can vary, sports are often differentiated from other forms of entertainment by the elevated levels of commitment and emotional attachment. Those individuals having a strong psychological connection with a team are said to be highly identified fans (Wann, Hunter, Ryan, & Wright, 2001; Wann, Haynes, McLean, & Pullen, 2003). As consumers of sport, highly identified fans have shown many desirable behavioral, cognitive, and emotional reactions as a result of their commitment to a given sport team and/or event. For example, Schurr, Wittig, Rubble, and Ellen (1987) found that level of identification predicted attendance at home games, and Wann and Branscombe (1990) found that highly identified spectators were less likely to disassociate or denounce their team, had more positive assessments of the teams' performance and outlook for the future, and viewed other spectators as special.

In the context of sport sponsorship, wherein corporations rely on positive feelings to transfer or “rub off” to a sponsors' brand (Gwinner, 1997; Keller, 1993; McDaniel, 1999), the underlying expectation is that consumers reward the corporation through patronage. From this consumer perspective, in two separate studies, Madrigal (2001, 2000) found that fan identification predicted individual development of purchase intentions of sponsoring firms' products. The USPS, Standard Life Group, and AMP examples cited in Chapter I show that corporations may also have the underlying expectation that employees will reward the firm through increased productivity and performance. From this employee viewpoint, Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005)

found that fan identification was correlated with employee commitment. As such, it is expected that fan identification will also be related to additional employee outcomes.

### *Organization Identification*

Under the theoretical umbrella of social identification theory, individuals may also classify themselves and others according to the business organizations for which they work. In fact, as Madrigal (2004) did with team identity, Ashforth and Mael (1989) argued that organizational identity is a specific form of social identification. As such, the purposes of making such classifications are to define others and self, once again in large part to enhance self-esteem (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Dukerich, Golden, and Shortell (2002) wrote that “a perceived organizational identity that helps the individual maintain a consistent sense of self, distinct from others, while enhancing self-esteem, will be viewed as attractive” (p. 509). In a very real sense, membership in or belonging to an organization can impart affirmative attributes upon its members.

Many studies examining the antecedents of organization identification in varying contexts have been conducted. While the SIT literature suggests there are several factors that can directly influence the development of organization identification depending on the specific context, Ashforth and Mael (1989) identify the three “which most likely increase the tendency to identify with groups” (p. 24). They consist of distinctiveness of the group’s values and practices, prestige of the organization, and salience of the out-groups. In studying a corporate setting, Reade (2001) also identified that support and appreciation of superiors had a positive influence in fostering organization identification. At least two of these antecedents are relevant when considering organization and fan

identification in a corporate sponsorship context. When an organization sponsors a sport property, employees are given an additional point of attachment to the corporation. With regard to these antecedents, the sponsor relationship can signify many things to the employees. For example, referring to one of the sponsor relationships discussed above, if many USPS employees are fans of cycling, or are highly identified to Lance Armstrong, it is conceivable that the workforce interprets the sponsoring of Lance Armstrong as a sign of support and/or appreciation from management. Additionally, because of the great amount of success that Armstrong achieved in cycling over the years, USPS employees may perceive that that they have a relationship with a very prestigious athlete. When he performed well, it is likely that those USPS employees highly identified with Armstrong attributed some of that success not only to themselves, but also to the corporation.

However, perceptions of prestige not only apply to the sport property being sponsored, but also to the corporation supporting the property. Cornwell and Coote (2005) found that organization identification of participants in a racing fundraiser for a non-profit organization was influenced by perceptions of prestige. In a recent meta-analysis of organization identification, Riketta (2005) also found a strong positive correlation to exist between organizational prestige and organization identification, while various personal characteristics such as tenure, age, and job level were found to only mildly correlate with organization identification. Based on these findings, it was determined that organization prestige should be controlled in the following hypothesis:

H1: After controlling for prestige of the sponsor, employee fan identification will have a positive direct relationship with organization identification.

### *Corporate Sponsorship*

As was previously defined, corporate sponsorship occurs when a business organization exchanges a fee (cash or in-kind) to a sport property (team, league, event, athlete) in return for access to exploitable commercial potential (usage of logos, trademarks, etc.) that is associated with the property. Despite the growing body of sponsorship-related knowledge and literature, Cornwell and Maignan (1998) criticized sponsorship-related research for lacking in explanatory theoretical frameworks of how sponsorships are processed. Meenaghan (2001a) offered the interrelations between goodwill, image transfer, and fan involvement as a framework to understand how sponsorship works. More recently, efforts by Pracejus (2004) and Cornwell, Weeks, and Roy (2005) have attempted to respond to this criticism in summarizing many various processing mechanisms employed by audiences who are subjected to the ubiquitous sponsorship activities in today's sporting environment. While a thorough review of these concepts can be found in the aforementioned literature, three of these notions important to understanding how sponsorship works which are pertinent to the current study will be examined.

#### *Goodwill*

A key component to the positive reception of sponsorship activities is the concept of goodwill (Meenaghan, 1991). Meenaghan (2001b) suggests that the phenomenon of goodwill is the first tenet of understanding sponsorship and is what ultimately differentiates sponsorship from advertising. In large part, because sponsorship is perceived by audiences to benefit society, consumers tend to lower their defense



mechanisms and receive sponsorship in a halo of goodwill (Meenaghan, 2001a, 2001b, 1991). On the other hand, advertising has been perceived to be selfish and intrusive in nature when compared to the indirect communication of sponsorship (Meenaghan, 2001a, 2001b). In other words, the subtlety of the message being communicated through sponsorship activities along with the perceptions of benefiting an activity with which the audience has a strong emotional attachment enables the generation of goodwill. The goal for sponsors then becomes the translation of these positive feelings or goodwill into behaviors or actions of support from the various targeted audiences.

Studies have shown that developing goodwill with consumer audiences can result in positive attitudes toward sponsors and greater purchase intentions of their products (Bennett, 1999; Meenaghan, 2001a). More directly, Pope (1998) stated that “sponsorship activities will provide some form of benefit to sponsoring corporations in terms of consumer attitudes towards the corporation itself or in purchase of the corporations’ brands” (p. 124). Transferring these positive associations to an employee perspective, one could expect that employees have the potential to develop goodwill toward their employer as a result of the corporation sponsoring a favorite event and/or team.

Although this study is not concerned specifically with the measurement of goodwill, the discussion of this central tenet of sport sponsorship serves as a basis for understanding how sponsorship works as a marketing communications tool. Under the assumption that varying levels of goodwill are developed as a result of a sponsor relationship, this study is concerned with examining the possible interrelationships between various attitudes and involvement surrounding sponsorship activities.

### *Fan Involvement*

Meenaghan (2001a) described one such concept of fan involvement as “the extent to which consumers identify with, and are motivated by, their engagement and affiliation with particular leisure activities” (p. 106). Somewhat related to the idea of fan identification detailed above, fan involvement is the notion that sports fans have the ability to be involved to varying degrees with their favorite sports activities, events, and/or teams. Meenaghan (2001a) described the audience reception of the relationship between the sponsor and the sport property as being mediated by the level of the fan involvement with the sport property. This relationship is depicted in Figure 1.

Not only do employees have the opportunity to be involved with preferred sport activities in their leisure time, but corporations participating in sponsorship activities often engage in internal marketing practices in order to create employee enthusiasm surrounding the sponsored events. For example, according to IEG (2008b), American Express recently invited more than 3,000 employees to a corporate sponsored rock concert in Central Park, and McDonald’s has had endorsed NBA athletes visit stores around the country to meet with employees. From personal experience, Visa Inc. also participates in such practices, decorating corporate offices with Olympic-themed materials and inviting Olympic and Paralympic athletes to give motivational speeches during employee luncheons. Such activities can provide employees with additional exposure and opportunities to be involved with a favored sport property. It is expected that employees highly identified with a sponsored sport property will more actively participate in such sponsorship related activities.

H2: Fan identification toward a sponsored sport property will be positively related to involvement with sponsorship-related corporate activities.

*Attitude Toward the Sponsorship*

Speed and Thompson (2000) found that attitude toward the sport property and attitude toward the sponsor to be among the most influential of a handful of factors determining audience response to sponsorship activities. In the current study, attitude toward the sport property is considered to fall under the realm of fan identification explained above. Attitude toward the sponsor can as well take on different meanings in this specific context. As was also described above, the employee audience is also likely to develop attitudes toward the sponsor, which in this case is their employer. This concept explained above is organization identification. However, differing from organization identification or attitude toward the sponsor, employees may develop differing attitudes toward the sponsorship itself. In other words, employees may view the relationship between the firm and the sport property from very different perspectives. For example, some employees may think that it is great that the company sponsors a favorite team or event and develop a sentiment of goodwill as a result of feeling supported by the company. Contrary to this feeling of support on the other hand, an employee who is not a fan of the sponsored sport property may consider the company to be wasting money on such a relationship. As such, it is expected that highly identified employees will receive the sponsorship more positively than employees who are either not identified or have low levels of fan identification with the sport property.

H3: Fan identification with a sponsored sport property will be positively related to employee attitudes toward the sponsorship.

Research has also shown that highly involved fans are most aware of a) the sponsors' investment, b) the benefit arising from the sponsorship, and c) are most favorably disposed toward the sponsor (Clark, 1991; Diakopoulou, 1990; McDonald, 1991; Meenaghan, 2001a). As employees experience additional exposure and increase involvement with the sponsored property through sponsorship-related corporate activities, it is likely that these opportunities influence employee attitudes toward the sponsorship itself. Thus, it is expected that those employees who are involved in sponsorship-related corporate activities have positive attitudes toward the sponsorship.

H4: Employee involvement with sponsorship-related corporate activities will be positively related to attitudes toward the sponsorship.

As both employee involvement with and attitude toward the sponsorship increase, it is expected that employees will develop more positive associations with their employer.

H5: Employee involvement with sponsorship-related corporate activities will have a positive direct relationship with organization identification.

H6: Employee attitude toward the sponsorship will be positively related to organization identification.

### *Job Satisfaction*

From an historical perspective, research in the area of job satisfaction dates as far back as the 1930's (Hoppock, 1935; Kornhauser & Sharp, 1932; Roethlisberger &

Dickson, 1939). Defined as the “positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300), job satisfaction has become the most frequently studied variable in organizational behavior research (Spector, 1997). As such, this oft-studied construct is important to understand for several reasons, not the least of which is because job satisfaction can “lead to behavior by employees that affects organizational functioning” (Spector, 1997, p. 2). Because job satisfaction can serve as an indicator of organizational effectiveness, Cunningham (2006) states that employee satisfaction is seen as an end itself. In the current discussion of job satisfaction, several well-founded theoretical frameworks will be highlighted, including an explanation of different levels of job satisfaction. After this, research covering the relationships between job satisfaction and many other human resources constructs such as organization identification, job performance, motivation, commitment, and organization citizenship behavior will be explored. Finally, based on the following discussion, an additional hypothesis will be posited.

#### *Theoretical Frameworks of Job Satisfaction*

The historical theoretical foundations of job satisfaction can be classified into the two broad categories of need based and process based theories. Herzberg’s (1959) widely known two-factor need based theory, which played a major role in the progression of job satisfaction theories, was developed shortly after Maslow (1954) first conceptualized and classified human needs into five levels: physiological, safety and security, social, esteem, and self-actualization. Although Maslow did not apply such human needs specifically to the area of job satisfaction, Herzberg (1959) suggested that

two factors, hygiene and motivators, in the work environment led to employee satisfaction. Hygiene needs represented the need to avoid pain, which was influenced by the type of supervisor and existing working conditions. Motivators represented the human need to grow psychologically and consisted of elements such as recognition, responsibility, and personal growth (Lambrecht & Hutson, 1997).

As opposed to identifying needs that may lead to job satisfaction, process theories concentrate on the cognitive or mental processes individuals pass through to satisfy those needs (Lambrecht & Hutson, 1997). Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory identifies four concepts, outcomes, valence, expectancy, and instrumentality, each of which influences job satisfaction. Outcomes recognize need-related consequences of behavior. Valence is the individuals' intensity to achieve the desired outcome. Expectancy is the estimated probability that a certain level of effort will lead to good job performance. Lastly, instrumentality is the individuals' perceptions that motivate action to achieve the desired outcomes or job performance. This advanced job satisfaction theory in that individual differences in perceptions can result in individual differences in achieving levels of job satisfaction.

Adams' inequity theory proposed in 1963 added an additional element to process theories explaining individual level job satisfaction. The inequity theory, based on the proposition that employees want to be treated fairly, revolves around the comparison process between employees' inputs (effort, time, skills, education) and outcomes (pay, promotion, satisfaction). In this theoretical framework, an employee experiences satisfaction when he/she perceives outcomes are equal to the inputs. Conversely, job

dissatisfaction may occur when an employee perceives a coworker to have fewer inputs, greater outcomes, or in the worst case scenario, a combination of both.

As theories of job satisfaction have progressed over the years, research has evolved to encompass many different levels, factors, and related constructs in organizational behavior literature. A discussion of several of these concepts follows.

#### *Levels and Facets of Job Satisfaction*

Existing measures of job satisfaction generally fit into one of two categories. Some measures assess the overall or global level of satisfaction, while others evaluate one or more key aspects or factors of the job (Fields, 2002). According to Spector (1997), some of the facets that have been frequently examined in this field of literature include appreciation, communication, coworkers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work, the organization, policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security, and supervision. Many scales have been developed enabling organizations to succinctly measure employee satisfaction with specific policies and/or practices unique to their organizations. Wright and Bonett (1992) reported that in some instances measures of several of these facets are averaged together to achieve an overall measure of satisfaction. As such, job satisfaction has been measured both according to many of these facets (Desphande, 1996; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Brown & Peterson, 1993), as well as on a more encompassing global level (Spector, 1997).

Over the years, much effort has been made to comprehend the primary structure of the many facets of job satisfaction. While Locke (1976) summarized much of the

early work regarding these facets, Spector (1997) points out that in their entirety, research on facets reveal four general areas including: rewards, other people, nature of the work, and the organizational context. Perhaps it is for this reason then, that many researchers often examine a smaller group of facets rather than including a dozen or more. For instance, Deshpande (1996), Vitell and Davis (1990), and Watson and Slack (1993) all investigated facets of job satisfaction using a smaller composite of facets including pay, promotions, co-workers, supervisors, and the work itself. Amongst these five facets, Watson and Slack (1993) reported correlations with overall job satisfaction ranging from .27 for pay satisfaction to .60 for supervisor satisfaction. Elsewhere, in examining a more inclusive model including 10 facets, Snipes, Oswald, LaTour, and Armenakis (2005) found that the four facets most closely related to overall job satisfaction were pay, the work itself, co-workers, and contingent rewards including promotions. Such evidence suggests that these facets of job satisfaction may play an important role in measuring overall satisfaction, and will thus serve as control variables when evaluating job satisfaction.

The relationships between job satisfaction and personal characteristics have also received significant attention by academicians. While such characteristics as age (Akindutire, 1993; White & Spector, 1987; Zeitz, 1990), gender (Pastore, 1993; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990), and ethnicity (Barrett, Gillentine, Lamberth, & Daughtrey, 2002; Tuch & Martin 1991) have been examined, Kim and Cunningham (2005) note that their effects have been rather spurious. In a meta-analysis involving 19 studies, Brush, Moch, and Pooyan (1987) found a mean correlation of .22



between age and job satisfaction. In a study, as well as in another meta-analytic review of gender and job satisfaction by Witt and Nye (1992), the authors of both reported mean correlations hovering around zero. Finally, when considering racial differences in the US, Brush et al. (1987) reported no evidence of different levels of job satisfaction amongst black and white populations. As such, it was determined that all personal characteristics would be excluded from the model investigating job satisfaction in the current study.

#### *Relationships with HR Constructs*

As discussed in Chapter I, corporations around the world are now spending billions of dollars annually attempting to achieve a variety of objectives. With regard to the internal audience, firms often use sponsorships to positively influence employees in hopes of creating increased levels of morale, performance, and productivity. The question may arise then as to why study the effects of sponsorship on job satisfaction. The following discussion will address this inquiry.

As one of the most important human resource-related outcomes (Doherty, 1998; Lease, 1998), and the most studied variable in organizational behavior research (Spector, 1997), there is no denying the magnitude of job satisfaction to academicians and industrialists alike. Not surprisingly with all the consideration that it has received over the years, job satisfaction has been found to be positively related to employee outcomes such as job performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984), organizational citizenship behavior (Becker & Billings, 1993; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Organ & Ryan, 1995), and organizational commitment (Brown &

Peterson, 1993; Bluedorn, 1982; Bartol, 1979; Reichers, 1985; Johnston, Parasuaman, Futrell, & Black, 1990). Researchers have also long recognized that organization identification is an integral construct in organizational behavior literature, as it influences both the satisfaction of the individual, as well as the effectiveness of the organization (Brown, 1969; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Ouchi, 1981; Rotondi, 1975). While organization identification is far from being sufficient to lead to job satisfaction by itself, research has shown the two concepts to be strongly correlated (Hall & Schneider, 1972; Riketta, 2005; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). As a result of the established relationships between job satisfaction and the many employee behaviors listed above, the benefits of having satisfied employees should be apparent. Employees who like their jobs are more likely than those who are not satisfied to perform better in their respective positions and engage in non-compulsory activities that benefit coworkers and/or the organization; some of the suggested outcomes marketing managers have claimed result from sponsorship activities. Thus, it is expected that organization identification will be positively related to job satisfaction.

H7: After controlling for facets of job satisfaction (pay, the work itself, supervisor, promotion, co-workers), employee organization identification will be positively related to overall job satisfaction.

In other words, in addition to being an important outcome in itself, job satisfaction has been shown to be a central tenet amongst the many important human resource-related constructs. First and foremost, a meta-analysis conducted by Riketta

(2005) showed job satisfaction to be highly correlated to organization identification according to Cohen's (1988) classification of effect sizes. Another meta-analysis (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) examining the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment showed that a strong relationship existed between these two constructs as well. Elsewhere, job satisfaction has also been shown to have moderate correlations with job performance (Petty, McGee, and Cavendar, 1984) and employee motivation (van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000). Thus, because of the centrality of job satisfaction, by measuring this as an outcome variable, much more information can be garnered with respect to the entire organizational climate. Figure 2 depicts the interrelationships amongst these human resource constructs along with the strength of each respective relationship.

#### *Summary*

In summary, because corporate sponsorship has the ability to create goodwill or positive feelings with audiences, it has become an effective communications tool, enabling corporations to transfer the image of the sponsored sport event or team to the corporation itself. In addition to the hypotheses developed above, this study will explore the direct relationship that both fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship have with job satisfaction. As research shows that highly identified fans exhibit reciprocity to greater degrees than less identified fans, it is expected that highly identified fans will also develop higher levels of job satisfaction. Additionally, because highly involved fans are more positively disposed toward the sponsor (Clark, 1991;

McDonald, 1991), it is also expected that highly involved fans experience greater levels of job satisfaction. The two exploratory research questions follow.

1. After controlling for facets of job satisfaction (pay, the work itself, supervisor, promotion, and co-workers), do employees with high levels of fan identification experience greater satisfaction with their jobs?
2. After controlling for facets of job satisfaction (pay, the work itself, supervisor, promotion, co-workers), do employees who are involved sponsorship-related corporate activities experience greater satisfaction with their jobs?

A model depicting the many interrelationships under investigation in this study is shown in Figure 3.

In review, the five overarching concepts pertinent to this study have been detailed. Social identity theory has provided the theoretical backdrop of fan and organization identifications; identities in which people classify themselves and others. An overview of corporate sponsorship was provided. A brief framework of some historical theories vital to the advancement of knowledge and understanding of job satisfaction were explained, followed by a discussion of its importance and centrality amongst many human resource-related constructs. Hypotheses were developed and along with Figure 3 explain the expected interrelationships amongst these concepts. The methodology used in examining these relationships will be explained in the next chapter.

### CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methodological procedures employed to test the hypotheses developed in Chapter II. This chapter is organized as follows: the first section describes the procedures that guided this study, followed by the research design and the sample selection process that was employed. Next, each of the variables of interest are discussed, with the instrumentation detailing reliability to follow. Finally, the data analysis techniques utilized are described.

#### *Procedures*

As the overarching purpose of this research endeavor was to examine potential sponsorship impacts on job satisfaction, a key hurdle in progressing with this research was identifying a corporation willing to collaborate in this effort. As such, three organizations engaged in varying levels of international, national, and regional sport sponsorships were approached. Originally, the directors of marketing and sponsorships were emailed to gauge the level of interest in participating in this undertaking. After follow-up telephone conversations with representatives of each of the corporations, one sponsor, an energy provider located in the southern US was enthusiastic to take part in this research project. It should be noted that at the time of the study, this sponsor was engaged in several sport and cultural sponsorships ranging from local minor league baseball teams to city development projects to several professional sporting organizations in their home state.

Fitting nicely with the objectives of this study was the fact that one of the four corporate mandated goals for the current year is to achieve an 80% level of employees rating the organization as a good or great company for which to work. In an interview with the director of sports and marketing sponsorships, it was communicated that several executive level managers felt that employee morale had increased significantly in the recent years since sponsorship had become a vital cog in their marketing communications strategy. Thus, gaining internal support and cooperation for this research endeavor proved to be only a minor obstacle. Once final approval was obtained, a project timeline was set forth in collaboration with the sponsors' internal research group. This timeline included periods of instrument approval and modification, employee recruitment, data collection, and data analysis. All communication with the employees was directed through the director of sports and marketing sponsorships. Approximately 2,000 employees located throughout the home state of the corporation received an invitation to participate in the study, which consisted of an online questionnaire administered through a web site and server provided by the Texas A&M University Center for Sport Management Research and Education.

### *Research Design*

This study, examining the specific order of relationships amongst the five variables fan identification, employee involvement in sponsorship related activities, attitude toward the sponsorship, organization identification, and job satisfaction is referred to as a path analysis. As Thompson (2006) reports, Sewall Wright conceptualized this process in the early 1900's as a way of studying relationships

amongst variables. This method enables researchers to study both direct and indirect effects of “measured variables on other measured variables considered to be effects” (Thompson, 2006, p. 282). As depicted in Figure 3, this study examined nine direct effects relationships, as well as five indirect effect relationships. The direct effects of fan identification on organization identification, involvement with the sponsorship, attitude toward the sponsorship, and job satisfaction were examined. Additional direct effect relationships inspected included involvement with the sponsorship on attitude toward the sponsor, organization identification, and job satisfaction, as well as attitude toward the sponsor on organization identification. The model shown in Figure 3 also illustrates that several indirect relationships all working through organization identification on job satisfaction were examined.

### *Sample Selection*

As the population of interest in the current study consisted of employees working for a corporation currently engaged in sport sponsorship activities, finding an organization willing to participate in the study was a critical hurdle to overcome. This study was conducted through an online environment with employees of an energy company whose headquarters are located in a large metropolitan area in the southern United States. This energy provider is a publicly traded company with more than 3,500 employees, making up the sampling frame. While employees are located throughout the country, the majority lives and works in the home state of the corporation. Employees were recruited through an email invitation by the director of sports and marketing sponsorships. Employees were invited to participate in this study without incentive or

any repercussions of non-participation. They were asked to voluntarily participate, with all responses being completely anonymous. Although Dillman (2000) recommended having at least four contacts with potential participants, due to continual communication from the corporation and the desire to not overburden or overuse corporate email accounts, employees received only one invitation to participate in this study. This initial email was disseminated in the early morning hours of Wednesday, April 2, 2008, and included an invitation with the link to the external web site containing instructions as well as the questionnaire itself.

Following Linder, Murphy, and Briers (2001), nonresponse error was controlled by comparing early to late respondents. Early respondents, those who participated in the study the same day as the invitation was communicated, theoretically representing those who completed the study, were compared to those respondents who completed the questionnaire on subsequent days, theoretically representing those employees who did not participate in the study. The results of an independent samples *t* test shown in Table 1 revealed that significant differences did not exist between these two groups for seven items appearing at the beginning of the instrument. This test was conducted to compare the scores for early and late respondents on two measures of overall job satisfaction, as well as five measures of satisfaction with specific facets of the job. With regard to the two measures of overall job satisfaction, there was no significant difference in scores for early respondents ( $M = 4.02$ ,  $SD = .84$ ) and ( $M = 4.07$ ,  $SD = .76$ ) with late respondents to the respective items ( $M = 3.97$ ,  $SD = .92$ ),  $t(417) = .44$ ,  $p = .65$  and ( $M = 4.08$ ,  $SD = .84$ ),  $t(332) = -.15$ ,  $p = .27$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$ . There was no significant difference in early ( $M = 3.70$ ,



$SD = .98$ ) versus late respondents ( $M = 3.85$ ,  $SD = .97$ ) in satisfaction with pay  $t(416) = -1.18$ ,  $p = .42$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ ; nor with satisfaction with opportunities for promotion ( $M = 3.42$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ) and ( $M = 3.48$ ,  $SD = 1.10$ ),  $t(414) = -.41$ ,  $p = .23$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$ . Early ( $M = 4.12$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) and late respondents ( $M = 4.02$ ,  $SD = .97$ ) did not differ statistically  $t(415) = .88$ ,  $p = .74$ ,  $\eta^2 = .002$  with regard to satisfaction with the supervisor or with their co-workers ( $M = 4.32$ ,  $SD = .67$ ) and ( $M = 4.25$ ,  $SD = .83$ ),  $t(333) = .76$ ,  $p = .16$ ,  $\eta^2 = .002$ . Lastly, there was not a statistically significant difference between early ( $M = 4.12$ ,  $SD = .77$ ) and late respondents ( $M = 4.10$ ,  $SD = .87$ ),  $t(331) = .21$ ,  $p = .27$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$  with regard to satisfaction with the work itself. While this test does not ensure that respondents are similar to non-respondents, for this sample, it does suggest that timing of response did not reveal any significant differences for employees. Summarizing the demographic characteristics of the respondents, Table 2 shows that 54.1% of survey participants were male, the majority (61%) fell in the 25 to 44 year old age range, and that Caucasians were the predominant ethnicity accounting for 55.7% of participants, while Hispanics and African Americans represented 12.6% and 9.7% respectively.

#### *Variables and Instrumentation*

The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationships between a) employee identification with a sponsored sport property, and b) their attitude toward the sponsorship, along with the resulting influence that these attitudes may have on c) employee identification with the organization for which they work, and ultimately on d) the level of experienced job satisfaction. In examining the interrelations amongst these variables, job satisfaction ultimately served as the outcome variable of interest, with fan

identification serving as the independent variable, and organization identification, involvement with the sponsorship, and attitude toward the sponsorship each alternating roles between dependent and independent variables, depending on the respective position and corresponding relationship being tested in the model. The following includes an operational definition and description of the scales employed for each of the variables pertinent to this study.

### *Fan Identification*

Fan identification is defined as the extent to which the employee respondent identifies with the sponsored professional football team. Various alternative scales have been utilized to measure the level of fan identification in sport management and specifically sport sponsorship research studies. Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005) adapted an eight-item Positive and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS) scale from Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) when they measured affinity for a NASCAR team in a sponsorship context. These adapted items seemed to intertwine the concepts of fan identification with attitude toward the sponsorship, both of which needed to be measured separately in the current study. Recently, Gwinner and Swanson (2003) adapted Mael and Ashforth's (1992) organization identification scale to measure fan identification with an NCAA football team. Using this scale did not pose any problems in their case as fan identification was the only type of identity measured. Because two identities are being measured in the current study, it was deemed that Mael and Ashforth's (1992) organization identification scale would be more appropriately employed to measure that

construct. Thus, to avoid any confusion, neither of these two scales was selected to measure fan identification herein.

As Wann and Branscombe have pioneered much of the team identification research in the sport management literature, it is not surprising that their fan identity scale developed in 1993 has been widely used in the sporting context. With consideration for questionnaire length, their scale was modified to measure fan identification in this sponsorship context, with items being selected based on factor loading scores reported in their study. This scale of fan identification and all other scales discussed below can be viewed in Appendix C. Cronbach's alpha for fan identification in the current study was calculated to be .89.

#### *Organization Identification*

Mael and Ashforth (1992) summarized organizational identification as a perceived oneness with an organization. The operational translation in this study then, is the degree to which employees feel at one with the corporation for which they work. Similar to Bhattacharya, Rao, and Glynn (1995), Cornwell and Coote (2005) as well as Gwinner and Swanson (2003), Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale of measurement was utilized to gauge employee levels of organization identification. Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale has been the tool of choice when measuring organizational identification in many different disciplines. In a study comparing levels of employee identification with small work groups to identification with the greater corporation, van Knippenberg and van Schie (2000) used this scale and reported coefficient alpha values ranging from .73 to .83 in two different studies. Carmeli, Gilat, and Weisberg (2006) used three items

from this scale, reporting an alpha value of .66. In a sport sponsorship context, Cornwell and Coote (2005) utilized six items to measure organization identification with a non-profit organization that organizes an annual sporting event to raise awareness and funds. They reported an alpha of .79. For the current study employing a three item scale, Cronbach's alpha was tabulated to be .84.

*Prestige.* Just as with job satisfaction, a handful of antecedents have been identified to influence the development of organization identification. The employees' perceptions of organizational prestige or stature of a corporation in the community served as a control variable in this study. As with organization identification, in this study, organization prestige was measured following Bhattacharya, Rao, and Glynn (1995), Cornwell and Coote (2005), who reported alpha's of .69 and .66 respectively. Utilizing the two items having achieved the highest factor loadings in these aforementioned studies, an alpha level of .75 was realized in the current study.

#### *Involvement with the Sponsorship*

As was previously identified, Meenaghan (2001a) described fan involvement as the level of engagement and affiliation people demonstrate with various leisure activities. He described three levels of fan involvement as lightly involved, moderately involved, and highly involved. In this context, the corporate sponsor not only occasionally has game tickets available for employees, but also recruits employees to participate in cause-related community building projects affiliated with this particular sponsorship. So, following Meenaghan's lead, as well as with input from the corporate director of sponsorships, in this study, employees indicated one component of

involvement with the sponsorship as the behavioral frequency with which they have participated in company related activities with the professional football team. Consumer behavior literature has also identified that word of mouth can also be an important outcome of involvement in the consumer decision-making process (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Richins, Bloch, & McQuarrie, 1992). Accordingly, two additional items developed by Richins and Bloch (1986) were employed to measure behavioral involvement with the sponsorship. While this three-item scale resulted in an acceptable Cronbach's alpha level of .78 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), when the measure of participating in company related activities was removed, the alpha increased to .90. This occurrence required further inquiry as to the inclusion of this third item in future analyses. A more thorough examination and explanation is included in the measurement model section in Chapter IV.

#### *Attitude Toward the Sponsorship*

Employee attitudes toward the sponsorship may differ for several reasons, some of which were discussed in Chapter II. Attitude toward the sponsorship is defined as how the employees perceive, or in what light they receive the relationship, and will be operationalized in a similar fashion as Gwinner and Swanson (2003) and Sengupta and Fitzsimons (2000) as the employees' overall impressions of the partnership. This was an observed, rather than a latent variable.

#### *Job Satisfaction*

As one of the most important, and most studied variables in organizational behavior literature (Spector, 1997), there was a multitude of alternatives available to

measure job satisfaction. One scale that received consideration was the Job in General Scale, which was developed by Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, and Paul (1989). This scale, containing 18 items was developed specifically to assess global job satisfaction independent of facets of satisfaction (Fields, 2002). However, because several facets were measured independently as control variables, and in the interest of not overburdening the respondents, overall satisfaction was measured using two of three items from a scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). Spector (1997) agreed that the brevity of the scale makes it ideal to use in a questionnaire containing many scales. Field (2002) reported that studies using this scale recorded coefficient alpha values ranging from .67 to .95, indicating good reliability. In the current study, an alpha of .88 was realized.

As discussed in Chapter II, several facets of job satisfaction also served as controls in this study. As such, the following variables were operationalized as described.

*Employee satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and the work itself.* Each of the facets of job satisfaction listed above was measured by one item, taken from Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Pay indicates the level of satisfaction with pay and increases in pay. Promotion indicates the satisfaction with opportunities for promotion. Supervision deals with the level of satisfaction an employee has with his/her immediate supervisor. An employee's satisfaction with co-workers as well as with the type of work done will also be measured.

### *Analysis of Results*

Of the nearly 2,000 employees receiving an invitation to participate in the study, a total of 427 chose to respond to the questionnaire. However, due to incomplete responses as well as a technical error when exporting the data from the survey software to an excel spreadsheet, responses for 308 employees were deemed usable, resulting in an approximate response rate of 15.4%. In the process of exporting the data from the selectsurvey.net software to a spreadsheet, the excel software limited the amount of characters to transfer per each cell. For the lengthy, multi-item scales, this resulted in the loss of data for 80 respondents on a handful of items. These items included measures of co-worker satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself, a second item measuring overall job satisfaction, as well as two items measuring prestige of the organization. Not being satisfied with this rate of response, the following efforts were undertaken to deal with missing data.

Although missing data is common in multivariate analysis, it is essential for the researcher to understand and address the issues raised by the missing data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Thus, following Hair et al. (1998), efforts were made to identify the nature of the missing data. These authors state that in some situations, “the researcher has little control over the missing data processes, but some remedies may be applicable if the missing data are found to be at random” (p. 49). Under the current circumstances of software limitations, the researcher indeed did not have control of the missing data processes. Thus, it was important to diagnose the randomness of the missing data. The two general levels of missing data patterns include missing at

random (MAR) as well as missing at complete random (MCAR) (Kline, 2005). Hair et al. (1998) describe MAR as missing values of variable Y that depend on X, but not on Y, whereas MCAR occurs when the values of Y are truly a random sample of all Y values “with no underlying process that lends bias to the observed data” (p. 50).

Hair et al. recommended three methods to identify the randomness of the missing data. The first involves separating the data into two groups – one group with complete data for variable Y and a second group for those missing Y values. Once the groups have been formed, the researcher can perform statistical tests to ascertain if significant differences exist between the two groups on several other variables of interest. Similar to the *t* tests conducted above, comparing scores from early and late respondents, a series of *t* tests comparing scores from a group with complete data to a group with missing data was performed. These tests indicated no significant differences between the two groups for items measuring satisfaction with pay for the group with complete data ( $M = 3.72$ ,  $SD = 1.00$ ) and the group with missing data ( $M = 3.72$ ,  $SD = .87$ ),  $t(416) = -.03$ ,  $p = .98$ ,  $\eta^2 = .032$ ; for satisfaction with promotions ( $M = 3.43$ ,  $SD = 1.04$ ) and ( $M = 3.43$ ,  $SD = .86$ ),  $t(414) = -.01$ ,  $p = .99$ ,  $\eta^2 = .028$ ; and for satisfaction with the supervisor ( $M = 4.09$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) and ( $M = 4.18$ ,  $SD = .96$ ),  $t(415) = -.86$ ,  $p = .39$ ,  $\eta^2 = .039$ . Such results suggest that the missing data should be classified at least at the MAR level.

A second test to determine if values are MCAR involves dichotomized correlations. In this scenario, valid responses are replaced by the value of one, while missing responses are given the value of zero. These indicators are then correlated, with low correlation scores indicating randomness in the missing data. If all pairs of



indicators exhibit randomness, then the data can be classified as MCAR. The results of this analysis shown in Table 3 demonstrate that many of these variables exhibit high correlational relationships. Such relationships prevent MCAR designation of the missing data.

As one of the two types of ignorable missing data patterns (Kline, 2005), once missing data has been classified as MAR, one of four general methods of dealing with this scenario should be employed (Vriens & Melton, 2002). One such method is data imputation. While several approaches of imputing data such as mean substitution, pattern matching, and cold deck imputation are commonly employed, the use of regression imputation was utilized herein. Regression-based imputation takes better advantage of the structure of the existing data (Kline, 2005) to predict the value of the missing scores. Structural equation modeling software AMOS 16.0, which has the option of selecting the type of data imputation to be employed, allowed regression imputation to be performed. Once the data was imputed, descriptive statistics, specifically means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations were calculated for the entire respondent sample ( $n = 427$ ). For comparison purposes, these statistics were also tabulated only for those respondents who had provided complete information on the questionnaire ( $n = 308$ ). Furthermore, because large sample sizes, in excess of 400 can create sensitivity to structural equation modeling methods of analysis (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; Tanaka, 1987), Hair et al. (1998) recommended using a sample size closer to 200. Accordingly, a random sample of 200 was selected for comparison purposes. The aforementioned descriptive statistics for all three sample sizes

are displayed in Table 4. The results show very little differences amongst the three data sets, validating the use of data imputation at this level.

### *Data Analyses*

A number of statistical analyses were employed in this study. First, demographic characteristics describing the sample including gender, age and ethnicity have been reported above. Additional descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables of interest have been calculated using SPSS 15.0, and are reported in Table 4.

The focal point of the data analysis includes the evaluation of the predicted paths or relationships established amongst the various constructs discussed in Chapter II, by utilizing the statistical technique of structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM is a multivariate technique of analyzing data, which combines elements of multiple regression and factor analysis in order to simultaneously measure a series of dependence relationships (Hair et al., 1998). While a variety of SEM techniques and applications have been employed in an assortment of fields, including psychology, sociology, and econometrics, Hair et al. (1998) suggested that two characteristics distinguish SEM from other multivariate techniques. These characteristics are: a) the ability to estimate many interrelated dependence relationships, and b) the ability to represent latent constructs in these relationships, as well as accounting for measurement error in the estimation process. As such, this technique was ideal for evaluating the relationships under investigation in the current study.

Widely viewed as a confirmatory statistical technique in nature, Hair et al. (1998) described three distinct strategies for employing SEM. First and most obvious in nature is indeed the confirmatory modeling strategy, wherein the researcher specifies a single model and evaluates its statistical significance. In essence, employing this strategy results in the conclusion of, either the model works, or it does not. A second strategy of employing SEM is called the model development strategy. With this approach, theory provides the starting point for a model to be empirically tested. Hair et al. (1998) warn that this strategy should be employed cautiously, and rather than exploratory in nature, the empirical outcomes should be employed in respecifying the model only with theoretical support, “rather than just empirical justification” (p. 592). A third strategy, “the strongest test of a proposed model is to identify and test competing models that represent truly different hypothetical structural relationships” (Hair et al. 1998, p. 591) is termed the competing models strategy. This strategy occurs when a researcher identifies several different models to be compared, in an attempt to find the “best” model, or the one that most accurately depicts the relations amongst the constructs of interest.

Because of the number of constructs being examined in this study, and the numerous paths by which these constructs could potentially be interrelated, it was deemed that the competing models strategy was an appropriate approach to use in this study. Based on the theoretical foundations described in Chapter II, the interrelated dependence relationships set forth in the hypotheses and diagrammed in Figure 3 were examined using a structural equation modeling technique. As use of the covariance matrix has been described as a better test of theory and allows for comparison across a

variety of samples (Hair et al., 1998), it was chosen in preference over the correlation matrix. The following steps guided this process.

Several factors came into play when considering the appropriate sample size when employing an SEM technique of statistical analysis. Because of the potential for model misspecification, or the exclusion of relevant variables in predicting job satisfaction, as well as the considerable size of the model itself, a larger than normally recommended sample was desirable for this study. General recommendations include using a ratio of 10 respondents per measured parameter, with a suggested total ranging from 100 to 200 respondents. As was detailed above, because missing data posed some initial complications in evaluating the responses, data sets with three different sample sizes were created. While the discussion above did show that using the imputed data was valid, a more comprehensive comparison and explanation with regard to the SEM analysis is included in Chapter V.

While following the practical guideline provided by Bentler (1980) that too many indicators can cause problems in fitting a model to the data, as suggested by Bollen (1989), Hair et al. (1998) and Kelloway (1998), at least two indicators were employed for each latent variable. Based on the theoretical foundations discussed in Chapter II, the relationships between the variables have been described, with the diagrams of the four competing nested models depicted in Appendix B as figures four through seven respectively.

As there is not one single statistical index that best describes the model fit in SEM analysis, several fit statistics were examined to assess the theoretical models

proposed above. These measures can be placed into one of three main categories – measures of absolute fit, incremental fit, and of parsimonious fit. As several measures for each of these categories are reported in Chapter V, an explanation of the criteria for each measure follows.

First, the model or likelihood chi-square statistic was tabulated. In SEM, the chi-square tests the null hypothesis that the model is correct. Thus, statistical significance indicates a difference between the observed and estimated matrices. This has led Kline (2005) to refer to this statistic as a “badness-of-fit index” (p. 135), because as the  $\chi^2$  increases, the fit of the model actually decreases. One shortcoming of the chi-square statistic is its sensitivity to sample size (Hair et al., 1998; Kline, 2005). Larger sample sizes, especially those exceeding 200 have greater tendency to specify significant differences for identical models (Hair et al., 1998). However, Kline (2005) reports that virtually all SEM analyses include this statistic as a key ingredient to analysis, so it is included herein. Another measure of absolute fit is the goodness-of-fit index (GFI). While no absolute values have been identified as a cut-off point, higher values do indicate a better fit. An additional measure of overall fit is the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Because the error of approximation is concerned with the model’s lack of fit to the population covariance matrix as opposed to only the sample, it is sometimes referred to as a population-based index (Kline, 2005). As such, Rigdon (1996) found that RMSEA was best employed in a competing models strategy with larger samples, as is the case in the current study. MacCallum and Austin (2000) strongly encouraged the use of this statistic as it a) seems to be sufficiently sensitive to

model misspecification (Hu & Bentler, 1998), b) yields suitable conclusions about model quality (Hu & Bentler, 1998), and c) provides confidence intervals. Varying levels of acceptance have been reported in studies. While Kelloway (1998) reported Steiger's (1990) recommendations that values under .1 signify a good fit, and that values under .05 indicate a very good fit, Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that scores below .06 indicate a good fit. Finally, Hair et al. (1998) suggested that values between .05 and .08 should be deemed acceptable.

A common measure of incremental or comparative fit is the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI). As suggested by its name, the AGFI is very similar to the GFI, with an adjustment for the comparative degrees of freedom for the proposed to the null model. This index has a recommended acceptance level of .90 or greater (Hair et al., 1998). Next is the comparative fit index (CFI). With this measurement, the researcher's model is compared to a baseline or independence model. Hu and Bentler (1999) advocated a cut-off value of .90. In other words, values above .90 may indicate a good fit of the model to the data. Another popular measure of incremental fit is the normed fit index (NFI) (Bentler & Bonnett, 1980). As with the CFI, values of .90 or higher are recommended (Hair et al., 1998).

Lastly, the parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI), testing the degree of fit per degree of freedom, is used to test the parsimonious fit of the model. Dixon and Sagas (2007) as well as Hair et al. (1998) recommended that values above .06 are indicative of a close fit of the data to the hypothesized model. An additional test of parsimony is the

Akaike information criterion (AIC). As with the PNFI, the AIC compares models, with lower values indicating better fit and greater parsimony (Hair et al., 1998).

While the sample, variables, instrument, and statistical analyses, including accounting for missing data have all been described in this chapter, the following chapter contains the results of the analyses that were performed. A more thorough explanation of the model evaluation will be discussed.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationships between a) employee identification with a sponsored sport property, and b) their attitude toward the sponsorship, along with the resulting influence that these attitudes had on c) employee identification with the organization for which they work, and ultimately on d) the level of experienced job satisfaction. As such, the objective of this chapter is to provide the analysis of the hypotheses developed in Chapter II. More specifically, the analysis evaluated the path of relationships, providing insight as to how engagement in corporate sponsorship is related to employee organization identification and job satisfaction. Characteristics of the sample as well as various descriptive statistics involving the variables of interest were provided in the previous chapter.

While several researchers have recommended a two-step strategy to SEM analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; James, Muliak & Brett, 1982), when using reliable measures and solid theoretical rationale, using a single step analysis is the best approach because it decreases “the possibility for the structure or measurement interaction” (Hair et al., 1998). The initial phase of evaluating the single step analysis involves an examination of the measurement model, followed by an evaluation of the overall model fit. As such, an inspection of these respective models ensues.



### *Measurement Model Fit*

The purpose of evaluating the measurement model is to ensure that the model is accurately specified, with appropriate items being employed. Because the Cronbach's alpha previously reported for the three items indicating involvement with the sponsorship increased moderately when the third item was excluded from the scale, particular attention was paid to these items. As suspected, when fitting the model to the data in AMOS 16.0, the third item did not achieve a standardized loading weight ( $\beta = .43, p < .01$ ), above the recommended .60 cut-off level (Chin, 1998). Consequently, the model was respecified with two indicators for the sponsorship involvement construct. Table 5 displays loadings for items on each of the five latent variables. These values ranging from .67 to .93 were all above the recommended cut-off value of .60 (Chin, 1998). Both reliability and variance extracted scores were calculated for these constructs. The fan identification construct achieved reliability and extracted variance levels of .89 and .73 respectively. Involvement with the sponsorship realized values of .90 and .82, and organization prestige and identification scored respective reliability and extracted variance scores of .76 and .61, and .84 and .63. Lastly, employee job satisfaction achieved values of .86 for reliability and .75 for variance extracted. All five of the constructs exceeded the suggested .70 cut-off level for reliability as well as the .50 level for variance extracted (Hair et al., 1998). These two measures combined with the aforementioned Cronbach's alpha levels suggest that indicators used in this study are adequately reliable.

### *Model Evaluation*

The subsequent step involved in evaluating the four proposed models using structural equation modeling is to assess model fit. As was described in the previous chapter, the three components of model analysis include overall model fit, incremental or comparative fit, and finally a fit of parsimony. The results comparing each of these fits on all four models for the three data sets of differing sample size, specifically the complete sample of respondents with imputed data ( $n = 427$ ), the sample containing only those respondents having completely answered each item ( $n = 308$ ), and the smaller sample used for comparison purposes ( $n = 200$ ) are all displayed in Table 6.

The differences between these three sets of data as aggregates will be discussed first, followed by an individual evaluation of the four different models. As expected because of the sensitivity of the chi-square statistic to sample size, the first group of models with ( $n = 427$ ) showed the highest chi-square values, while the smaller randomly selected data set ( $n = 200$ ) achieved the lowest scores. Comparing the GFI scores, all three data sets score relatively high on this scale ranging from 0 to 1. There appears to not be a large degree of separation between the three sets of data with varying sample size. Next, the RMSEA scores are reported, with acceptable values ranging from .05 to .08, with scores below .06 indicating good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). As displayed in Table 6, all data sets showed at least acceptable fit, with varying specific models achieving good fit on this overall model fit statistic.

The incremental fit indices are reported next with all three data sets falling short of the suggested .90 cut-off score for the AGFI. However, the imputed data set ( $n = 427$ )

did come very close to reaching this acceptance level, while all three sets of data scored above the suggested cut-off criterion of .90 for CFI. With regard to the NFI measure, only the data set with the complete responses ( $n = 308$ ) did not achieve the acceptable level. The measures of parsimony are subsequently reported with models from all three data sets meeting acceptable standards above .60 for the PNFI. While no specific cut-off points have been established for the AIC, lower values indicate greater parsimony. In this case, it is not surprising to find the small comparison data set ( $n = 200$ ) achieving considerably lower scores because of this criterion's use of the chi-square statistic in its calculation. Lastly, the change in chi-square statistic is displayed and will be addressed in the discussion of specific models below.

When comparing descriptive and model fit statistics between the three different sets of data, very few differences were found. As such, because utilizing the largest set of data ( $n = 427$ ) with the imputation did not alter the overall fit of the model, and does increase the rate of response by 6% to 21.4%, this data set was selected for use in evaluating this path analysis.

When considering fit at the individual model level, the four models described above (all with  $n = 427$ ) achieve strikingly similar scores on all measures of model fit. In fact, all four models realized the exact same scores on all measures, with exception to those indicators of parsimoniousness. In this regard, Model A ( $\chi^2_{118} = 328.96$ ,  $p < .01$ , GFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, AGFI = .89, CFI = .95, NFI = .92, PNFI = .71, and AIC = 434.96), depicted in Figure 4, realized a slightly higher PNFI value than the other three models. However, Williams and Holahan (1994) proposed that differences of .06 to .09

constitute substantial model differences, suggesting no considerable differences amongst these models. Additionally, Model A achieved a marginally lower AIC score, perhaps indicating slightly enhanced parsimony. Lastly, the change in the likelihood-ratio chi-square statistic was found to not be statistically significant between any of the models. This is not surprising as large differences in chi-square statistics are not expected within nested models, when only one or two relationships are being altered.

Model B, which was identical to Model A except for an additional direct relationship between fan identification and job satisfaction also showed an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2_{117} = 328.69$ ,  $p < .01$ , GFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, AGFI = .89, CFI = .95, NFI = .92, PNFI = .70, and AIC = 436.69). Model C, which added a direct relationship from involvement with the sponsorship to job satisfaction, and Model D, which contained both of these additional direct relationships, also showed acceptable fit to the data at ( $\chi^2_{117} = 328.85$ ,  $p < .01$ , GFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, AGFI = .89, CFI = .95, NFI = .92, PNFI = .70, and AIC = 436.85) and ( $\chi^2_{116} = 328.24$ ,  $p < .01$ , GFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, AGFI = .89, CFI = .95, NFI = .92, PNFI = .70, and AIC = 438.24) respectively. These results suggest that all four models have achieved an acceptable fit to the data. When such a scenario presents itself, Kline (2005) advised following the principle of parsimony. This principle states that when two or more models have approximately the same explanatory power for the same data, then the simpler model is preferred. Thus, Model A was retained for further evaluation.

### *Hypothesis Testing*

Once the appropriate data set and model have been identified, attention shifted to evaluation of the theoretical hypotheses developed in Chapter II.

#### *Hypothesis 1*

The first three hypotheses dealt with the influences of fan identification on various employee attitudes and behaviors. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 predicted that employee fan identification would be positively related with organization identification after controlling for prestige of the corporation. While the two constructs were found to be positively correlated ( $r = .14, p < .01$ ), the SEM analysis showed the relationship was not statistically significant ( $\beta = -.03, p > .10$ ). Not only did the hypothesized relationship not hold, but the sign was also in the opposite direction of what was expected.

#### *Hypothesis 2*

Similarly, Hypothesis 2 predicted that employee fan identification with a sponsored sport property would be positively related to involvement in sponsorship-related corporate activities. Bivariate correlations show the two variables of interest were correlated ( $r = .44, p < .01$ ), and the model analysis supported this positive relationship ( $\beta = .48, p < .01$ ). Fans highly identified with the sponsored NFL football team tended to be more involved with the sponsorship.

#### *Hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3 also predicted a relationship between fan identification with a sponsored sport property and employee attitudes toward the sponsorship relationship. Particularly, employees with high levels of fan identification were hypothesized to

develop more positive attitudes toward the sponsorship. This hypothesis was supported as evidenced by the statistically significant levels of correlation ( $r = .51, p < .01$ ) and more importantly by the standardized regression coefficient ( $\beta = .40, p < .01$ ).

#### *Hypotheses 4 and 5*

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were concerned with the relationships that employee involvement with the sponsorship had with two additional variables of interest. Hypotheses 4 and 5 predicted that employee involvement with the sponsorship-related corporate activities would be positively related to both attitude toward the sponsorship and organization identification. While bivariate correlations show positive relations resulted for involvement with the sponsorship with attitude toward the sponsorship ( $r = .45, p < .01$ ) and organization identification ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ) respectively, standardized regression coefficients produced in fitting the model demonstrated that involvement was significantly related to attitude toward the sponsor ( $\beta = .28, p < .01$ ), but not with organization identification ( $\beta = .09, p > .10$ ). Thus, employees who were more involved with the sponsorship developed more positive attitudes toward the sponsorship, but this behavior did not necessarily increase their identification with the company in which they are employed.

#### *Hypothesis 6*

Similar to employee fan identification and involvement with sponsorship-related corporate activities, attitude toward the sponsorship was predicted to have a positive relationship with organization identification. Analyses revealed the two constructs were positively correlated ( $r = .38, p < .01$ ) and that the hypothesis was supported as

standardized regression coefficients were statistically significant with the predicted direction of sign ( $\beta = .29, p < .01$ ). Employees with positive attitudes toward the sponsorship reported higher levels of organization identification.

#### *Hypothesis 7*

The final theorized hypothesis predicted that organization identification would be positively related to employee job satisfaction. Bivariate correlations revealed the two constructs were positively related ( $r = .59, p < .01$ ). Regression coefficients from the SEM analysis showed that this hypothesis was supported ( $\beta = .38, p < .01$ ). In other words, employees with high levels of organization identification experienced higher levels of job satisfaction.

#### *Exploratory Research Questions*

In addition to the theorized hypotheses discussed above, two additional exploratory research questions were posed. As a reminder, these questions were concerned with the potential direct relationships that fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship would experience with employee job satisfaction. Analyses with the complete data set ( $n = 427$ ) demonstrated that while fan identification was not correlated with job satisfaction ( $r = .09, p > .05$ ), involvement with the sponsorship was correlated with job satisfaction ( $r = .19, p < .01$ ). While neither of these direct relationships were specified in Model A, an examination of Model D showed that neither fan identification ( $\beta = -.03, p > .10$ ), nor involvement with the sponsorship ( $\beta = .04, p > .10$ ) were significantly related to employee job satisfaction. Thus, the SEM analysis did not show support for either of these exploratory direct relationships.

### *Interpretation*

The results of the structural equation modeling show that several of the hypotheses have been supported. In addition to Table 7 listing the results of the statistically significant paths for all four models, Figure 8 contains the significant standardized parameter estimates only for Model A. As previously described, while the latent path loadings were statistically significant (all  $p < .01$ ), for ease of interpretation, these loadings were omitted from the diagram. As indicated above, within this model, all but two of the predicted paths were found to be statistically significant. Both latent variables fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship did not show statistically significant direct relationships with organizational identification. In addition to the lack of statistical significance of these two latent variables, one of the control variables specified on job satisfaction was found to not have a significant relationship with this outcome variable. Employee satisfaction with the co-worker did not hold the expected relationship with overall job satisfaction.

In addition to establishing the aforementioned relationships, analysis of this model using AMOS 16.0 permitted the examination of both the direct and indirect effects of each of these variables on employee organization identification and job satisfaction. These effects along with the total effects of each sponsorship-related variable on the two human resources outcome variables are contained in Table 8. As was hypothesized, fan identification, involvement with the sponsorship, and attitude toward the sponsorship all exerted effects on employee organization identification and job satisfaction. While the design of Model A suggested these effects would be of the mixed



variety (direct and indirect) on organization identification, this model explicitly specified that these effects would be of the indirect nature when acting on job satisfaction.

As it turned out, the direct effects exerted by fan identification ( $\beta = -.01$ ) on organization identification were found to not be statistically significant, while the indirect effects ( $\beta = .18$ ) were found to be significant and to work through both involvement with and attitude toward the sponsorship. Involvement with the sponsorship also exercised statistically insignificant direct effects ( $\beta = .07$ ) and significant indirect effects ( $\beta = .08$ ) through attitude toward the sponsor on organization identification. These three sponsorship related variables along with the prestige of the organization accounted for approximately 51% of the variance in employee organization identification ( $R^2 = .514$ ).

The indirect effects of fan identification ( $\beta = .07$ ), involvement with the sponsorship ( $\beta = .06$ ), and attitude toward the sponsorship ( $\beta = .11$ ) on job satisfaction were all positive. An additional indirect effect on employee job satisfaction that was not hypothesized was that of organizational prestige. This construct also exerted positive indirect effects ( $\beta = .25$ ) through organizational identification. As predicted, organization identification ( $\beta = .38$ ), along with five individual facets of job satisfaction, with pay ( $\beta = .23$ ), with the work itself ( $\beta = .27$ ), with the supervisor ( $\beta = .09$ ), with promotion opportunities ( $\beta = .37$ ), and with co-workers ( $\beta = .10$ ) all exerted direct effects on overall job satisfaction. In total, the variance explained in overall employee job satisfaction was 69% ( $R^2 = .691$ ).

To summarize the established existing relationships in this path analysis, it appears that fan identification has both positive direct and indirect effects on attitude toward the sponsor as it works through involvement with the sponsorship. Additionally, both fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship have positive relationships with organization identification, as they work through attitude toward the sponsorship itself. In other words, according to Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger (1998) involvement with the sponsorship partially mediates the relationship between fan identification and attitude toward the sponsorship. Moreover, attitude toward the sponsorship also at least partially mediates the relationship of fan identification and involvement with organization identification. In turn, these three sport and sponsor-related constructs appear to have a relationship with employee job satisfaction that is partially mediated through the construct of organization identification.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Although several objectives were accomplished in this study, the main purpose was to explore the relationship between corporate engagement in sports sponsorship activities and human resources or employee outcomes. More specifically, this study examined the relationships between a) employee identification with a sponsored sport property, and b) their attitude toward the sponsorship, along with the resulting influence that these attitudes had on c) employee identification with the organization for which they work, and ultimately on d) the level of experienced job satisfaction.

Sponsorship researchers have long been advocating an expanded examination of sponsorship effects on this important audience. Approximately one decade ago, after performing a thorough review of sponsorship literature, Cornwell and Maignan (1998) suggested investigating sponsorship effects on employee involvement and participation. Walliser (2003) noted that, from the point of this recommendation, until the end of 2001, only one additional study exploring sponsorship effects on this population had been conducted. Hall (2007) also noted that through 2007, a single published study addressing this relationship. This lack of growth in this area of the literature, combined with corporate executives continually citing the positive reactions of employees to corporate sponsorship activities, has created a need for a more detailed investigation of these relationships. As such, the research question that guided this study was: What relationships exist between the employees' identification with a sponsored sport property

and attitude toward the sponsorship with their organizational identification and job satisfaction?

### *Review and Discussion of Hypotheses*

The first hypothesis predicted that employee fan identification would be positively and directly related to organization identification. Although these two constructs were shown to have low levels of positive correlation, the structural model fit showed that the SEM model did not support this hypothesis. This relationship based on two premises of employee identification, the feeling of support and appreciation (Reade, 2001) as well as the success of an affiliated group rubbing off onto corporate success, falls short of being established. With regard to the first premise of employees feeling support and appreciation, it is quite possible that employees maintain a clear distinction between these two identities. In other words, just because their employer sponsors a local NFL team does not mean the employees are combining their fan identity of the team with their organization identity of the corporation. With regard to the second premise of enjoying the success of the football team or BIRGing (Cialdini et al., 1976), the football team has yet to achieve much success to share with its fan base. Thus, rather than attributing the teams' success to themselves or the sponsoring corporation, employees may be exhibiting CORFing (Snyder, Higgins, & Stucky, 1983) behaviors. A potential explanation to both of these behaviors involves the relative youth of the team, or lack of tradition. Because this team joined the NFL as an expansion team in 2002, it has not had much of an opportunity to build the necessary level of fan identity to would support this hypothesis. While the direct nature of this hypothesized relationship did not

hold as expected, as was detailed in Chapter IV, fan identification was shown to exert indirect effects on organization identification.

The second hypothesis predicted that employee fan identification would be positively related to involvement with sponsorship activities. This hypothesis was supported both through the preliminary correlation analysis as well as by the SEM model. Those fans highly identified with the professional football team were more actively involved with the sponsorship activities and behaviors. Such behaviors included participating in and discussing or describing sponsorship-related corporate activities.

Hypothesis 3 dealt with the relationship between employee fan identification and attitude toward the sponsorship. Specifically, it predicted that employees with high levels of fan identification would develop more positive attitudes toward the sponsorship. Once again, both the correlation analysis and the SEM model exhibited support of this relationship.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that employee involvement with the sponsorship would be positively related to attitude toward the sponsorship. These constructs were positively correlated; as well they were supported by the SEM model. As expected, the additional exposure from being involved with the sponsorship led to more positive perceptions and reception of the sponsorship engagement.

Hypothesis 5, dealing with the direct relationship between the level of involvement with the sponsorship and organization identification was not supported in this model. It was expected that increased involvement with the sponsor-related activities would directly lead to greater levels of organization identification. While these

two constructs were positively correlated, the SEM model did not support this hypothesis. It is somewhat surprising that this relationship did not hold as expected. Mael and Ashforth (1992) defined organizational identification as a perceived oneness with an organization. As employees become more involved in sponsorship-related corporate activities, it was expected that this involvement would be related to an increased feeling of unity with the organization. Similar to the relationship between fan and organization identification, it is possible that employees simply differentiate their involvement with the football team from their identity with the organization. Although the predicted direct relationship was not supported, the results of the SEM analysis discussed in Chapter IV did suggest that involvement with the sponsorship did have an indirect impact on organization identification.

The sixth hypothesis predicting attitude toward the sponsorship would be positively related to organization identification was supported by both the bivariate correlations as well as the SEM model. Indeed, employees having better perceptions of sponsorship were shown to have higher levels of organization identification. While this relationship did hold as expected, it did also accentuate the lack of support for Hypothesis 5.

The final hypothesis predicting that organization identification would be positively related with employee job satisfaction also received support from both the bivariate correlations and the SEM model. Specifically, this hypothesis stated that employees with high organization identification would achieve higher levels of job satisfaction.

While the direct relationships predicted by the Hypotheses 1 and 5 were not supported in the SEM model, as discussed in Chapter IV and displayed in Table 8, an examination of the indirect effects show that these sponsorship-related constructs do have a positive effect on organization identification. They work through, or are mediated by the construct of attitude toward the sponsorship. So, although the direct relationships that were hypothesized were not supported, an important finding in this study is that these two constructs may indeed have the ability to influence organization, albeit in an indirect manner. Thus, attitude toward the sponsorship seems to be a central tenet in sponsorships' impact on the employee audience. In actuality, attitude toward the sponsor enables fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship to influence organization identification and ultimately job satisfaction. Interpreting the direct and indirect effects of fan identification suggests that the positive indirect effects outweigh the negative direct effects as the total effects propose that for every one standard deviation increase in fan identification, the level of organization identification is expected to increase .18 standard deviations. The relationship of direct and indirect effects of involvement with the sponsorship on organization identification are both positive, adding to a total effect of a predicted increase of .18 standard deviations in the level of organization identification for each standard deviation increase in involvement.

Although not explicitly specified in Model A that was selected as the best fit for the data in this study, two additional exploratory research questions were posed in Chapter I. These questions involved the exploration of the direct relationships of fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship on employee job satisfaction.

However, an examination of model D, containing both of the direct relationships, showed that neither exhibited direct effects on job satisfaction. Nevertheless, similar to Model A both of these sponsor-related constructs were shown to maintain an indirect relationship, once again, mediated through attitude toward the sponsorship and organization identification. In fact, an interpretation of these indirect effects from Model A suggest that for each one standard deviation increase in fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship respectively, the level of employee job satisfaction would be expected to increase by .07 standard deviations.

### *Implications*

This research has used structural equation modeling to discern the path of relationships existing between the five constructs of interest: fan identification, involvement with the sponsorship, attitude toward the sponsorship, organization identification, and job satisfaction. As was discussed above, the results showed that several of the hypothesized relationships were supported, while a few others were not. Such results provide theoretical as well as practical implications, which will be detailed in the following discussion.

The first theoretical contribution of this study substantiates the relationship between fan identification with a sponsored sport property and organization identification. In a recent study with employees of a transportation company, Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005) found that employee identification with a sponsored car racing team was positively correlated to organization identification. While these researchers found a considerably higher correlation between these two constructs, the



current study enlightens readers to the concept of fan identification influencing organization identification through the construct of attitude toward the sponsor.

A second contribution of the current study is the role that involvement with the sponsorship has on organizational identification. Speaking about the consumer audience, Meenaghan (2001a) has previously posited that fan involvement acts as a mediator between the sponsor and the sport property. In the context of this study, when employees were the audience of interest, involvement appears to have dual roles. First, as with fan identification, involvement was shown to have significant indirect effects on organization identification through attitude toward the sponsor. Second, it also partially mediates the relationship between fan identification and attitude toward the sponsor, allowing fan identification both a direct and an indirect path of relation to attitude toward the sponsor. In summary, not only does involvement exert a direct effect on attitude toward the sponsor, but it also allows fan identification to transfer indirect effects on this same attitude.

This discussion leads to the influential role of attitude toward the sponsorship. Speed and Thompson (2000) have previously reported attitude toward the sponsor to be among the most influential factors in determining audience response to sponsorship activities. The results of the current study support this notion and suggest that attitude toward the sponsor appears to be the central tenet in a corporate sponsorships' ability to influence employee organizational identification.

The last three theoretical contributions of this study revolve around the overall finding that corporate sport sponsorship was shown to have positive effects on employee

job satisfaction. This corroborates the many claims by corporate executives, some of which are cited in Chapter I, that participating in sponsorships do have a positive influence on the workforce. Specifically, these theoretical contributions are that both fan identification and involvement with the sponsorship have an indirect effect on job satisfaction, through attitude toward the sponsorship and organization identification. Similar to the role of attitude toward the sponsorship discussed above, organization identification allows the effects of these three sponsorship related constructs a path to flow to employee job satisfaction. As this is the first connection made linking sponsorship effects to employee job satisfaction, it does expand the current landscape of understanding the wide range of sponsorship effects.

In addition to the aforementioned theoretical contributions, there is one overarching managerial contribution that comes from this study. This quantitative analysis has substantiated what managers have been claiming for years – that sponsorship does influence the employee audience. As such, managers may want to more conscientiously strive to employ this marketing tool toward their corporate staff (Grimes & Meenaghan, 1998). This energy company may want to follow the examples of the companies listed in Chapter I, who have organized corporate concerts, or had sponsored athletes visit corporate stores. In this specific case, the energy company may want to decorate corporate offices with football-themed décor at the beginning of the NFL season. They may want to have some the teams' star players or coaches visit the corporate offices to provide motivational speeches for corporate luncheons. Or, they may want to host a corporate gathering at the football stadium. All of these activities could

potentially help the employees feel like they were personally benefitting from the sponsor relationship and gaining unique access or experiences that would otherwise be unavailable. In doing so, the corporation could facilitate positive attitude development toward the sponsorship.

It is obvious that the majority of sponsorship activation will continue to be directed toward the consumer audience because of the sheer size of this audience and implications of reaching such an audience can have on the success of any business. In no way is this research attempting to divert this consumer-focused approach to practicing sponsorship. However, if managers truly understand the influence that engagement in sponsorship activities can have on their employees, it may well impact decisions on which sport property is sponsored and what activities are employed to leverage the relationships.

#### *Limitations and Future Research*

As with any research, there were a handful of limitations and restrictions pertaining to this study that are important to address. The first being the relative lack of access to the employee audience. Although the corporation was enthusiastic about participating in the study, rather than permitting a thorough recruitment process, as recommended by Dillman (2000), the employees received only one email as an invitation to participate in the study. Likewise, the employees did not receive any incentives to encourage participation. Despite this lack of access and incentives, an adequate sample size was achieved in order to perform the desired statistical analyses. Another shortcoming pertaining to access to the employee audience was that only those

employees living and working at or near the corporate headquarters were recruited for participation. This prevented any analysis or comparison to groups of employees who have not receive direct benefits or were able to be involved with activities related to the relationship with the NFL football team. An additional restriction of this study dealing with the software employed, created some obstacles during the process of analyzing the data. Because a dated version of the selectsurvey.net software was used, when the data was being exported to an excel spreadsheet, data was lost for a few items for 80 respondents. However, when data imputation was performed and three samples of varying sizes were compared, very little, if any differences existed between the data sets. This enabled the use of the largest data sample. Lastly, this study was limited to one category of sponsorship (sport team), in one geographical area, for one corporation. It may be difficult to generalize these results to other types of sponsorships, for example cause-related sponsorships, or to employees of product-oriented corporations in geographies different from the southern United States.

Despite these limitations, this study was successful in responding to the research question in clarifying the relationship between employee attitudes toward sponsorship and their levels of organization identification and job satisfaction. In addition to clarifying this relationship, many considerations for future research have evolved as a result of this study. Firstly, this study was only concerned with sponsorship influence on two human resource constructs, namely organization identification and job satisfaction. Previously, Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005) have investigated sponsorship relations with organization identification and employee commitment to a specific service

strategy. However, there is several other commonly studied human resource constructs that are potentially influenced by sponsorship practices. Three such constructs include employee motivation, organization citizenship behavior, and ultimately job performance. In Chapter II of this study, job satisfaction was described as being centrally located and related to all of these constructs. As sponsorship was herein shown to be related to job satisfaction, future research should consider sponsorship impact on these various human resource outcomes.

Another oft-studied concept in sponsorship literature is that of congruence, or fit between the sponsor and the sport property (Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006; Pracejus, 2004; Rodgers, 2003; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). This construct was not addressed in the current study, and may provide some explanation as to why Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005) reported much higher correlations between fan and organization identification. These authors measured employee fan and organization identification of a major trucking corporation in relation to the companies' sponsorship a NASCAR car. Presumably, there is a high degree of fit between a transportation company and racing cars. However, from a surface level in the current study, there may not appear to be much functional fit between an energy provider and an NFL football team. Future research should investigate the potential impact that congruence between sponsor and sport property can have on employee attitudes and perceptions of the sponsorship.

As attitude toward the sponsorship was found to play a central role in sponsorships relationship with employee job satisfaction, there are several aspects

regarding this construct that remain to be explored. To begin with, although it was found that neither fan identification nor involvement with the sponsorship exerted direct effects on job satisfaction, the direct link between attitude toward the sponsorship and job satisfaction heretofore remains unexamined. Is it possible that how employees perceive and/or receive a sponsorship directly relates to job satisfaction? Moreover, there are several demographic characteristics that potentially influence how employees perceive corporate sponsorship practices. Although Kim and Cunningham (2005) note that personal characteristics such as age, gender, and ethnicity have shown to have spurious relationships with job satisfaction, diversity and/or sponsorship researchers have yet to investigate how these characteristics influence reception of sponsorships. For example, in the current study, a good portion of respondents were female and of varying ethnic minority groups. Would these groups of employees differ from Caucasian males in the formation of attitudes toward sponsoring a sport such as football, which, historically speaking has been male dominated?

Additional directions for future research can include the magnitude of the sponsorship, the number of sponsorships, and the type of sponsorships in which the company engages. For example, would employees develop different attitudes or perceptions of a sponsorship if it was a global, national, or even a local sponsorship? Global sponsorships may seem more prestigious to employees, but if they are located in distant locations, it may be difficult for employees to perceive any benefit or develop a sense of pride or identity with the event. Also, employee perceptions of cause-related events may be different than those of sporting events. The altruistic nature of supporting

causes may provide greater appeal to the work force. Lastly, a concept common to marketers is the notion of clutter. If a corporation, such as the one involved in this study participates in a number of sponsorships, employees, just as customers may become confused or even tune out the messages being sent by the numerous established relationships. All of these provide areas of future research for those interested in continuing to expand the current knowledge base of sponsorship effects on the employee audience.

#### *Closing Statements*

In closing, this research has endeavored to accomplish two main objectives. The first objective was to expand the literature regarding corporate sponsorship and the employee audience. Despite being an important secondary audience to sponsorship activities, several researchers have noted the dearth of investigations addressing this topic (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Hall, 2007; Walliser, 2003). With the addition of this study, the amount of research focusing on this area in the last five years has effectively been doubled.

The second objective of this study was to investigate the many claims by corporate managers that sponsorship, despite its escalating costs of engagement, was an effective tool in reaching the internal corporate audience. Through the use of structural equation modeling, this study showed that sponsorship does indeed have an influence on employee organization identification and job satisfaction.

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## APPENDIX A

## TABLES

Table 1

*Independent samples t tests for early and late respondents (n varies depending on missing data; no imputed data included)*

Source	df	t	Sig.	$\eta^2$
Overall job satisfaction 1	417	0.44	0.65	0.000
Satisfaction with pay	416	-1.18	0.42	0.003
Satisfaction with promotions	414	-0.41	0.23	0.000
Satisfaction with supervisor	415	0.88	0.74	0.002
Satisfaction with co-workers	333	0.76	0.16	0.002
Satisfaction with the work	331	0.21	0.40	0.000
Overall job satisfaction 2	332	-0.15	0.27	0.000

Table 2

*Demographic characteristics*

Percent Frequency		Percent Frequency	
Gender		Ethnicity	
Male	54.1	African American	9.7
Female	45.9	Asian or Asian American	5.7
Age		Caucasion	55.7
		Hispanic	12.6
		Other	1.9
		Tenure	
		1 year or less	9.7
		2 to 4 years	5.7
18 to 24	2.8	5 to 9 years	55.7
25 to 34	36.3	10 to 19 years	12.6
35 to 44	24.9	20+ years	1.9
45 to 54	20.8		
55 to 64	6.9		
65+	0.3		

Table 3

*Correlational test if data is MCAR (n=427, no imputed data)*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Overall job satisfaction 1																	
2. Satisfaction with pay	<b>0.94**</b>																
3. Satisfaction with promotions	<b>0.85**</b>	<b>0.90**</b>															
4. Satisfaction with supervisor	<b>0.89**</b>	<b>0.95**</b>	<b>0.95**</b>														
5. Satisfaction with co-workers	0.26**	0.28**	0.27**	0.30**													
6. Satisfaction with the work	0.26**	0.28**	0.27**	0.29**	<b>0.99**</b>												
7. Overall job satisfaction 2	0.26**	0.28**	0.27**	0.29**	<b>0.99**</b>	<b>0.98**</b>											
8. Involvement with sponsorship 1	0.31**	0.28**	0.32**	0.34**	0.11*	0.10*	0.11*										
9. Involvement with sponsorship 2	0.29**	0.27**	0.30**	0.32**	0.12	0.11*	0.12*	<b>0.95**</b>									
10. Fan identification 1	0.28**	0.26**	0.30**	0.31**	0.08	0.08	0.08	<b>0.93**</b>	<b>0.88**</b>								
11. Fan identification 2	0.28**	0.26**	0.30**	0.31**	0.08	0.08	0.08	<b>0.93**</b>	<b>0.88**</b>	<b>1.00**</b>							
12. Fan identification 3	0.28**	0.26**	0.30**	0.31**	0.08	0.08	0.08	<b>0.93**</b>	<b>0.88**</b>	<b>1.00**</b>	<b>1.00**</b>						
13. Attitude toward the sponsorship	0.29**	0.27**	0.30**	0.31**	0.12*	0.11*	0.11*	<b>0.77**</b>	<b>0.73**</b>	<b>0.83**</b>	<b>0.83**</b>	<b>0.83**</b>					
14. Organization identification 1	0.31**	0.28**	0.31**	0.33	0.13**	0.13**	0.13**	<b>0.80**</b>	<b>0.76**</b>	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.96**</b>				
15. Organization identification 2	0.29**	0.27**	0.30**	0.31**	0.12*	0.11*	0.11*	<b>0.77**</b>	<b>0.73**</b>	<b>0.83**</b>	<b>0.83**</b>	<b>0.83**</b>	<b>0.93**</b>	<b>0.96**</b>			
16. Organization identification 3	0.31**	0.28**	0.31**	0.33**	0.13**	0.13**	0.13**	<b>0.80**</b>	<b>0.76**</b>	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.96**</b>	<b>1.00**</b>	<b>0.96**</b>		
17. Organization prestige 1	0.12**	0.10*	0.11*	0.13**	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.85**</b>	<b>0.87**</b>	0.38**	0.37**	0.41**	0.41**	0.41**	0.45**	0.47**	0.45**	0.47**	
18. Organization prestige 2	0.12**	0.10*	0.11*	0.13**	<b>0.86**</b>	<b>0.85**</b>	<b>0.87**</b>	0.38**	0.37**	0.41**	0.41**	0.41**	0.45**	0.47**	0.45**	0.47**	<b>1.00**</b>

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

*Means, standard deviations, and correlations comparing three data sets of different sample size*

A. Sample with imputed data (n = 427)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Attitude toward the sponsor	4.00	0.88											
2. Satisfaction with pay	3.72	0.97	0.11*										
3. Satisfaction with promotion	3.43	1.01	0.17**	0.46**									
4. Satisfaction with supervisor	4.11	0.87	0.06	0.29**	0.41**								
5. Satisfaction with co-workers	4.32	0.65	0.11*	0.21**	0.20**	0.55**							
6. Satisfaction with work	4.13	0.71	0.17**	0.22**	0.26**	0.35**	0.44**						
7. Fan identification	3.31	1.05	0.51**	-0.02	0.07	-0.04	0.09	0.13**					
8. Involvement with sponsorship	2.38	1.02	0.45**	0.03	0.11*	-0.02	-0.01	0.18**	0.44**				
9. Organization prestige	3.41	0.70	0.23**	0.22**	0.27**	0.16**	0.11*	0.21**	0.00	0.21**			
10. Overall job satisfaction	4.05	0.75	0.28**	0.53**	0.61**	0.46**	0.39**	0.52**	0.09	0.19**	0.43**		
11. Organization identification	4.05	0.74	0.38**	0.34**	0.34**	0.25**	0.22**	0.35**	0.14**	0.27**	0.56**	0.59**	

B. Sample without imputed data (n = 308)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Attitude toward the sponsor	4.01	0.89											
2. Satisfaction with pay	3.72	1.01	0.11*										
3. Satisfaction with promotion	3.41	1.04	0.20**	0.46**									
4. Satisfaction with supervisor	4.10	0.84	0.09	0.26**	0.41**								
5. Satisfaction with co-workers	4.33	0.67	0.15**	0.16**	0.16**	0.479**							
6. Satisfaction with work	4.11	0.79	0.21**	0.18**	0.22**	0.285**	0.38**						
7. Fan identification	3.27	1.10	0.49**	0.00	0.13*	0.01	0.15**	0.18**					
8. Involvement with sponsorship	2.38	1.01	0.44**	0.03	0.15**	0.04	0.04	0.24**	0.44**				
9. Organization prestige	3.41	0.79	0.29**	0.21**	0.29**	0.158**	0.07	0.21**	0.02	0.25**			
10. Overall job satisfaction	4.02	0.78	0.33**	0.53**	0.60**	0.436**	0.30**	0.47**	0.13*	0.24**	0.43**		
11. Organization identification	4.06	0.78	0.43**	0.34**	0.37**	0.265**	0.18**	0.37**	0.16**	0.28**	0.53**	0.60**	

C. Randomly selected comparison sample (n = 200)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Attitude toward the sponsor	4.04	0.89											
2. Satisfaction with pay	3.69	0.95	0.18**										
3. Satisfaction with promotion	3.44	1.00	0.16	0.52**									
4. Satisfaction with supervisor	4.14	0.85	0.07	0.32**	0.40**								
5. Satisfaction with co-workers	4.28	0.68	0.08	0.18**	0.18**	0.60**							
6. Satisfaction with work	4.19	0.67	0.21**	0.29**	0.30**	0.33**	0.42**						
7. Fan identification	3.53	1.03	0.48**	-0.04	0.03	-0.04	0.06	0.17*					
8. Involvement with sponsorship	2.46	1.07	0.53**	0.06	0.16*	0.04	0.03	0.22**	0.48**				
9. Organization prestige	3.43	0.74	0.17*	0.36**	0.27**	0.13	0.08	0.22**	0.04	0.22**			
10. Overall job satisfaction	4.09	0.79	0.24**	0.59**	0.67**	0.45**	0.33**	0.49**	0.02	0.18**	0.50**		
11. Organization identification	4.08	0.82	0.34**	0.36**	0.34**	0.23**	0.23**	0.35**	0.10	0.29**	0.58*	0.58**	

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).



Table 5

*SEM results: Standardized parameter estimates for the measurement model (n = 427)*

Indicators	Latent Variables				
	Fan identification	Involvement with the sponsorship	Organization prestige	Organization identification	Overall job satisfaction
Fan ID 1	0.90				
Fan ID 2	0.86				
Fan ID 3	0.81				
Involvement 1		0.93			
Involvement 2		0.88			
Involvement 3		0.43*			
Prestige 1			0.69		
Prestige 2			0.89		
Org ID 1				0.76	
Org ID 2				0.78	
Org ID 3				0.84	
Job Satisfaction 1					0.86
Job Satisfaction 2					0.90
Reliability	0.94	0.94	0.85	0.90	0.93
Variance extracted	0.83	0.90	0.75	0.76	0.87

Note. \* was not included in model specification or calculations of reliability or variance extracted.

Table 6

*Comparison of goodness-of-fit statistics of four models for three data sets*

Models	Data with imputation (n=427)									
	$\chi^2$	df	GFI	RMSEA	AGFI	CFI	NFI	PNFI	AIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
Model A	328.96	118	0.92	0.07	0.89	0.95	0.92	0.71	434.96	
Model B	328.69	117	0.92	0.07	0.89	0.95	0.92	0.70	436.69	0.27
Model C	328.85	117	0.92	0.07	0.89	0.95	0.92	0.70	436.85	0.11
Model D	328.24	116	0.92	0.07	0.89	0.95	0.92	0.70	438.24	0.71

	Data without imputation (n=308)									
	$\chi^2$	df	GFI	RMSEA	AGFI	CFI	NFI	PNFI	AIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
Model A	313.78	118	0.90	0.07	0.86	0.93	0.89	0.69	419.78	
Model B	313.75	117	0.90	0.07	0.86	0.93	0.89	0.68	421.75	0.03
Model C	312.82	117	0.90	0.07	0.86	0.93	0.89	0.68	420.82	0.96
Model D	312.31	116	0.91	0.07	0.86	0.93	0.89	0.68	422.31	1.46

	Randomly selected data for comparison (n=200)									
	$\chi^2$	df	GFI	RMSEA	AGFI	CFI	NFI	PNFI	AIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
Model A	215.35	118	0.90	0.06	0.85	0.95	0.90	0.69	321.35	
Model B	211.77	117	0.90	0.06	0.85	0.95	0.90	0.69	319.77	3.58
Model C	214.55	117	0.90	0.07	0.85	0.95	0.90	0.69	322.55	0.80
Model D	211.72	116	0.90	0.06	0.85	0.95	0.90	0.68	321.72	3.63

Note. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Table 7

*A comparison of standardized regression weights from structural models (n = 427)*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Model			
		A	B	C	D
Fan identification	Involvement with the sponsorship	0.48**	0.48**	0.48**	0.48**
Fan identification	Attitude toward the sponsorship	0.40**	0.40**	0.40**	0.40**
Involvement with the sponsorship	Attitude toward the sponsorship	0.28*	0.28*	0.28*	0.28*
Attitude toward the sponsorship	Organization identification	0.28**	0.28**	0.28**	0.28**
Organization prestige	Organization identification	0.65**	0.65**	0.65**	0.65**
Organization identification	Overall job satisfaction	0.38**	0.39**	0.38**	0.38**
Satisfaction with work	Overall job satisfaction	0.27**	0.27**	0.27**	0.27**
Satisfaction with supervisor	Overall job satisfaction	0.09*	0.08*	0.09*	0.09*
Satisfaction with promotion	Overall job satisfaction	0.37**	0.37**	0.37**	0.37**
Satisfaction with co-worker	Overall job satisfaction	0.10*	0.11*	0.10*	0.11**
Satisfaction with pay	Overall job satisfaction	0.23**	0.22**	0.23**	0.23**

Note. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Table 8

*Standardized direct, indirect, and total effects of study variables on organization identification and job satisfaction (n = 427)*

Effects on Organization Identity			
Study Variables	Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects
Fan identification	-0.03	0.20	0.17
Involvement with sponsorship	0.09	0.08	0.17
Organization prestige	0.59		0.59
Attitude toward the sponsor	0.29		0.29

Effects on Job Satisfaction			
Study Variables	Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects
Fan Identification		0.07	0.07
Organization identification	0.38		0.38
Involvement with sponsorship		0.07	0.07
Pay satisfaction	0.24		0.24
Work satisfaction	0.25		0.25
Supervisor satisfaction	0.11		0.11
Promotion satisfaction	0.37		0.37
Co-worker satisfaction	0.09		0.09
Organization prestige		0.22	0.22
Attitude toward the sponsor		0.11	0.11

## APPENDIX B

## FIGURES

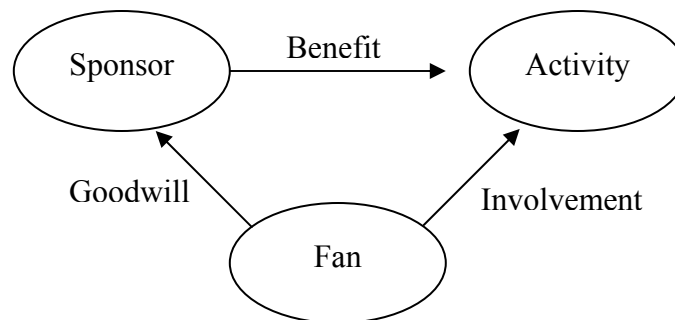


Figure 1

*Goodwill effects and fan involvement (Meenaghan, 2001a)*

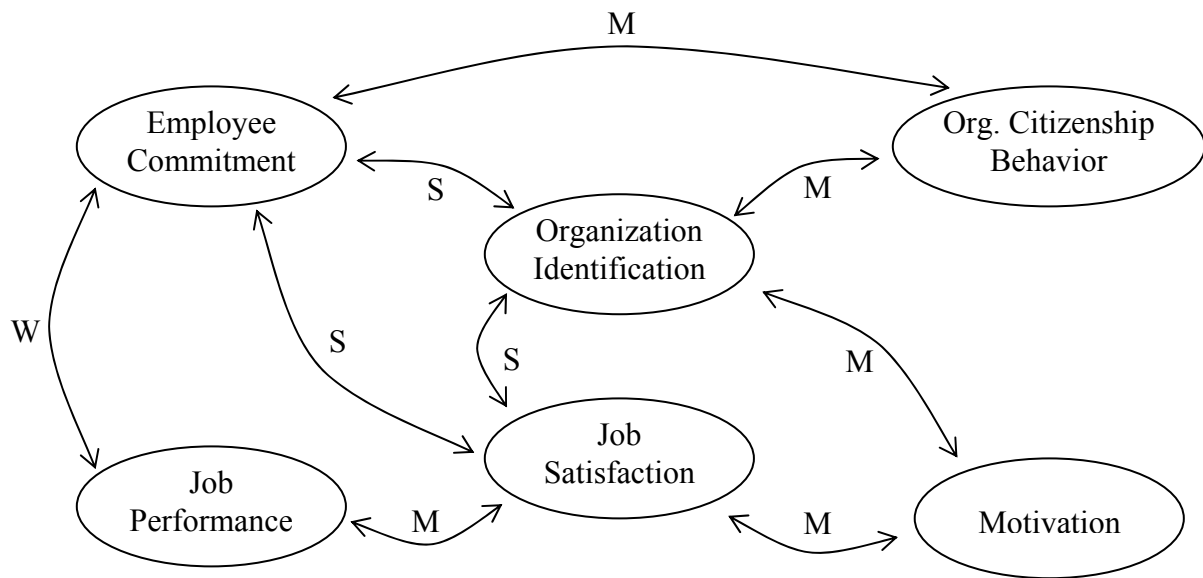


Figure 2

*Relationship amongst various human resources constructs: where S = strong, M = moderate, & W = weak*

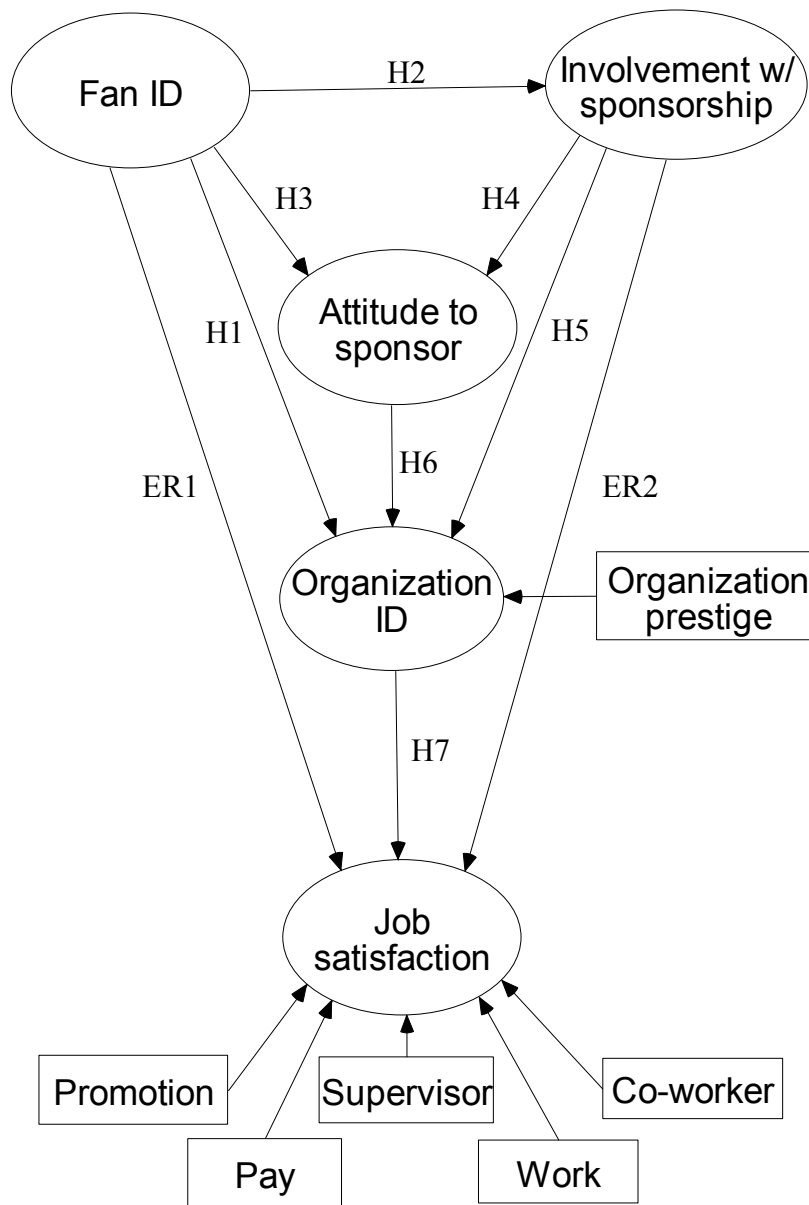


Figure 3

*Sponsorship effect on organization identification and job satisfaction: Fan identification, involvement, and attitude*



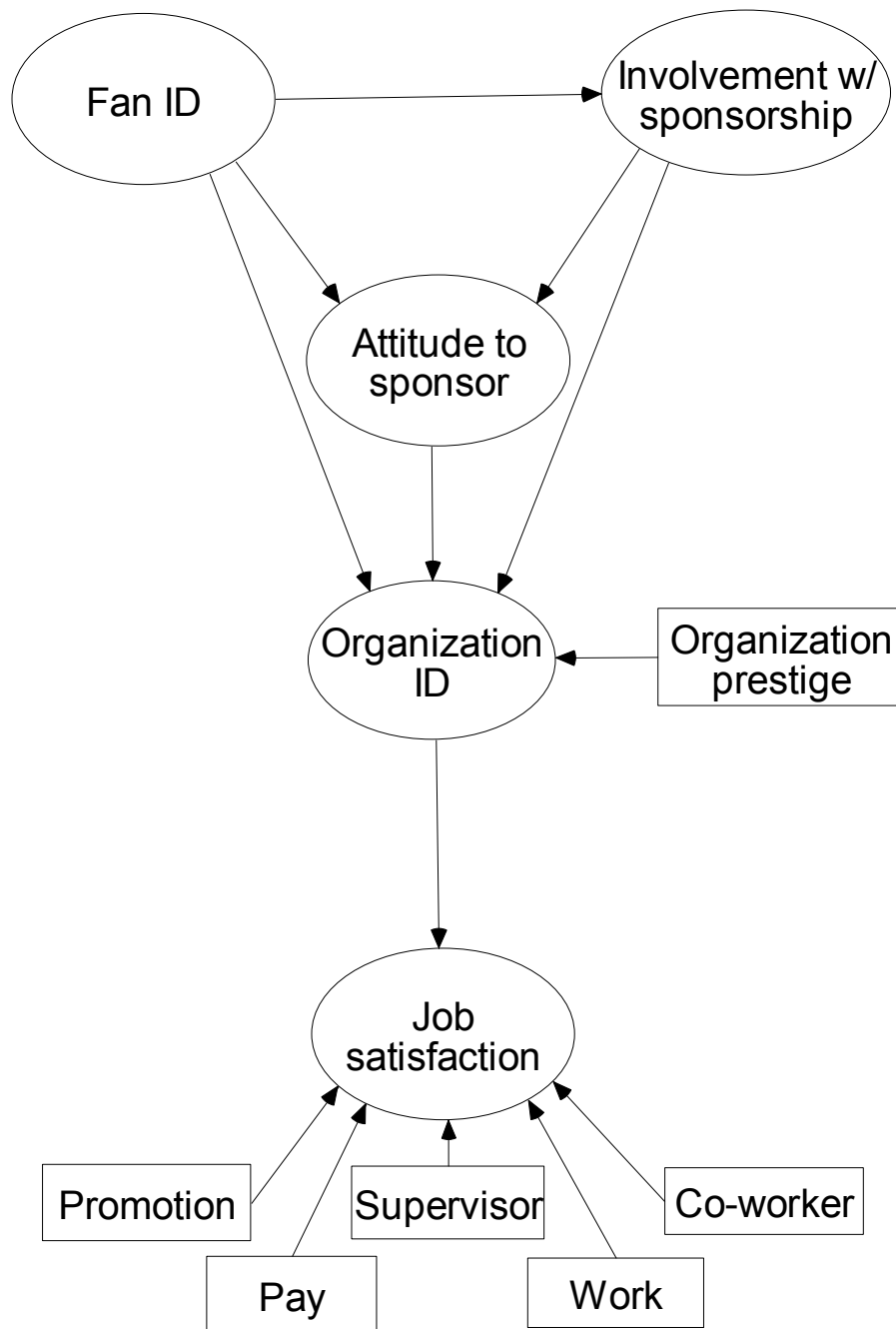


Figure 4

*Hypothesized model A*

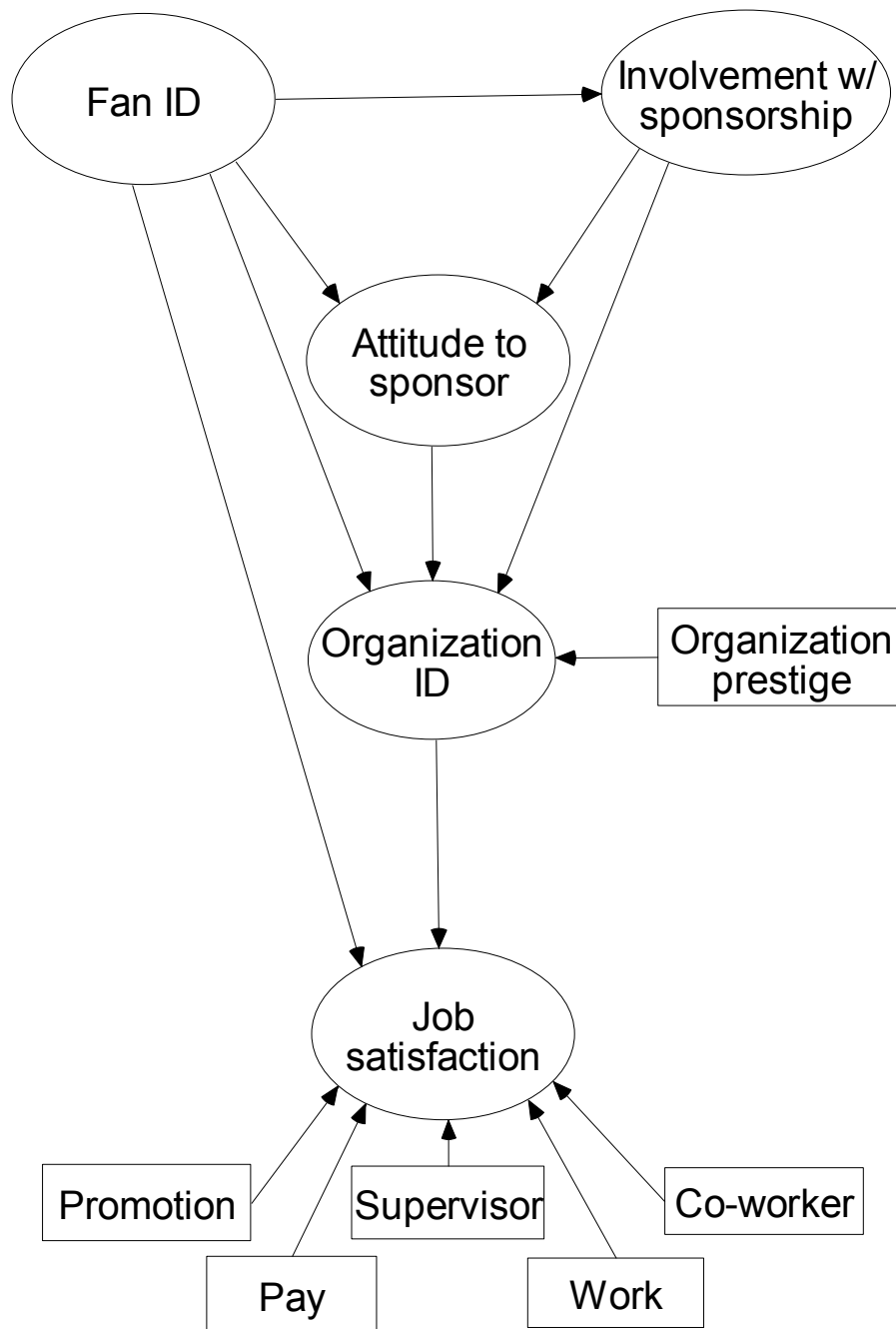


Figure 5

*Hypothesized model B*

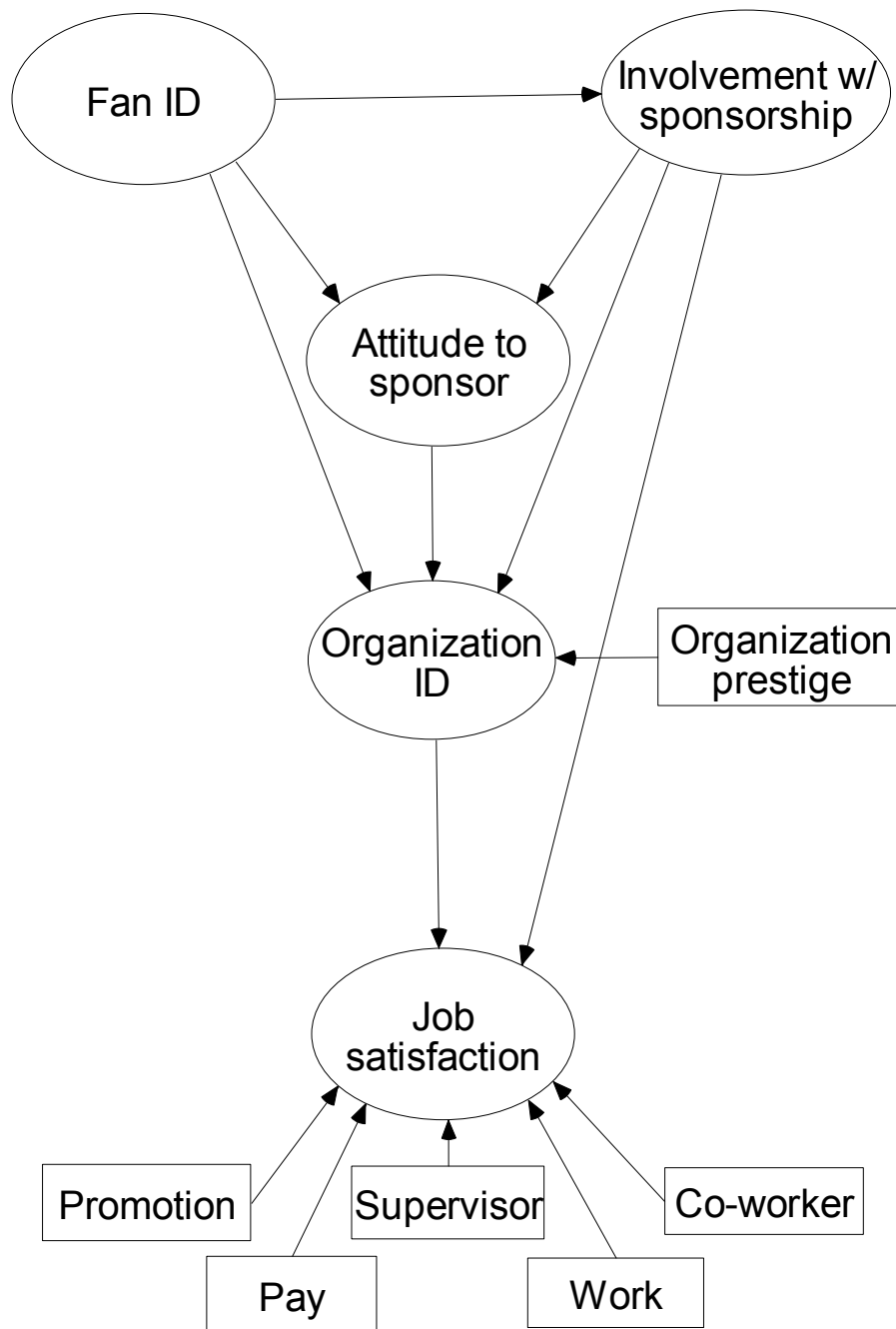


Figure 6

*Hypothesized model C*

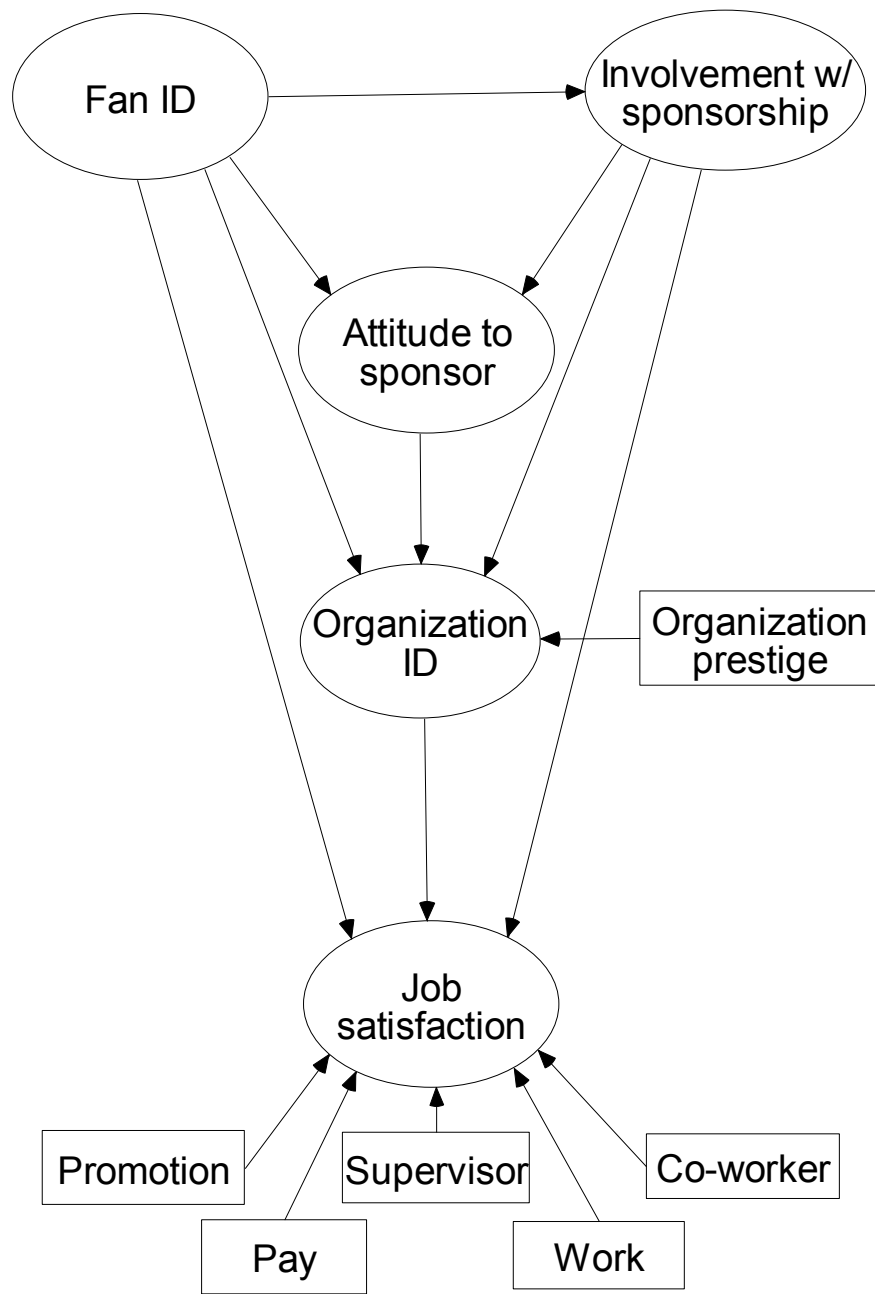


Figure 7

*Hypothesized model D*

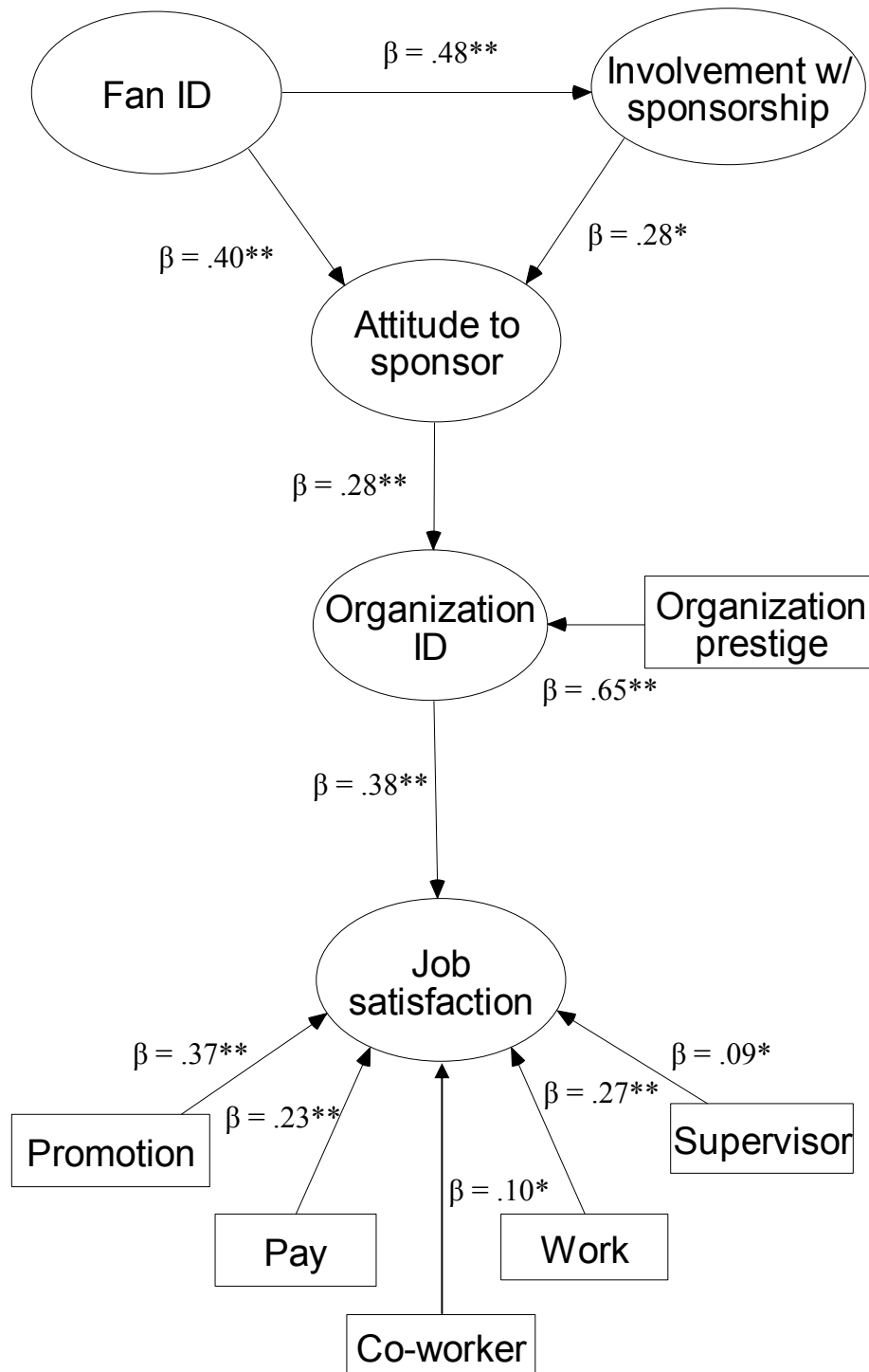


Figure 8

Estimated standardized path coefficients of the best fitting model. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

APPENDIX C  
SCALES ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Due in large part to concerns regarding the length of the questionnaire by the corporate research department, many of the scales identified and discussed above have been modified and/or shortened. Where possible, items with the highest factor loadings have been retained for this study, with a couple of exceptions wherein the corporate research department preferred specific wording of items identified below. See Chapter III for a detailed discussion of all scale items.

The following three items were selected from Wann and Branscombe's (1993) scale to measure fan identification. Each of these items was answered on the respective five-point Likert type scales:

1. Which of the following best describes how you feel about the NFL football team? (1 = not at all a fan, 2 = not really a fan, 3 = indifferent, 4 = somewhat a fan, 5 = very much a fan)
2. How important is being a fan of the NFL football team to you? (1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = neutral, 4 = important, 5 = very important)
3. During the season, how often do you follow the NFL football team in person or through any media? (1 = never, 2 = once a month, 3 = once a week, 4 = several times a week, 5 = daily)

Three items from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale were used to measure organizational identification. These were measured in a five-point scale, ranging from "1 = Strongly Disagree" to "5 = Strongly Agree."

1. When I talk about ABC Corp., I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.
2. ABC's corporate success is my success.
3. When someone praises ABC Corp., it feels like a personal compliment.

Mael and Ashforth (1992) also developed the following scale to measure perceptions of organizational prestige. These two items were anchored on a five-point scale by "1 = Strongly Disagree" to "5 = Strongly Agree".

1. People in my community think highly of ABC Corp.
2. ABC Corp. is considered one of the best energy providers in the southern US.

Fan involvement with the sponsorship was measured with three behavioral questions including two from Richins and Bloch (1986). These two items were anchored on a five-point scale by "1 = Strongly Disagree" to "5 = Strongly Agree".

1. During the football season, I speak to a lot of people about the company's sponsorship of the NFL football team.
2. During the football season, I frequently describe to others exciting events involving ABC Corp. and the NFL football team.

The third item deals directly with employee involvement in corporate sponsorship-related activities.

3. Have you participated in company activities related to the NFL football team?

- No
- Yes, once or twice
- Yes, 3 to 5 times
- Yes, more than 5 times

Following Gwinner and Swanson (2003) and Sengupta and Fitzsimons (2000), attitude toward the sponsorship was assessed by responses on a five-point Likert-type scale to the following statement:

Please indicate your perceptions regarding the sponsor relationship the ABC Corp. currently has with the NFL football team.

1. Very unfavorable to very favorable

Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983) developed the following items to measure overall job satisfaction as part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. Item responses exist on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.”

1. I am a satisfied employee overall.
2. Overall, I like working at ABC Corp.

Five facets of job satisfaction from Spector’s (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey were measured by the following items. These items were anchored on a five-point scale by “1 = Strongly Disagree” to “5 = Strongly Agree”.

Pay Satisfaction:

1. I receive competitive pay for the work I do.

Promotion satisfaction:

1. I have sufficient opportunities to advance my career at ABC Corp.

Supervision satisfaction:

1. My supervisor does his/her job quite well.

Co-worker satisfaction:

1. I like the people I work with.

Work itself:

1. I enjoy the work I do.



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- 2006 Olympic Winter Game Regional Marketing Campaign, 6/2004, Visa International
- Evaluation of naming rights contract with Seattle Mariners, Winter 2004, Safeco Insurance
- National Basketball Development League Market Selection Evaluation, Spring 2005, Southwest Basketball, LLC